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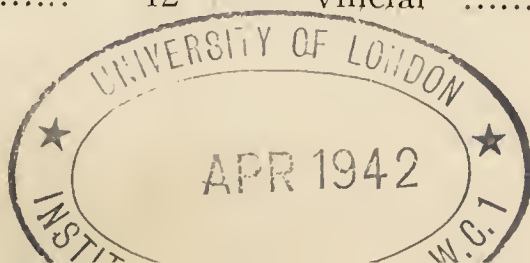
THE NEW ERA

INDEX TO VOLUME 20

January to December, 1939

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

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Outlook Tower

THIS number of *The New Era* is devoted mainly to the conference recently held by the English Section of the New Education Fellowship. The subject was *The Schools and the State*. At a time of crisis it was natural that the discussions should delve deeper into issues that determine the scope and character of education than is usual at such gatherings. The conference recognized that democracy—to which many speakers declared their allegiance and no one demurred—is facing a challenge of the utmost gravity. In the pages that follow, educationists of widely varying experience consider a number of aspects of this crucial problem. By way of introduction, let us try to see what it is that makes democracy and its fate a matter of urgent importance to education.

The kernel of any form of democracy is the constitutional right of the people to govern themselves. It was in this governmental sense that the Greek philosophers used the term. But every conception tends to broaden and deepen as its meaning is explored and its implications come to light. Inquire, for instance, why the people should have any right to govern themselves, and you come to see that democracy must ultimately mean a society based on the essential equality of all men. Push your inquiry further, and you realize that, if men are to exercise their equality, they must be free. Thus democracy has gradually unfolded a social, spiritual and ethical significance going far beyond what the so-called democrats of the ancient world would have endorsed.

It was Christianity, with its doctrine of the equality of all men before God, that gave the

greatest impulse to this unfolding. The idea of equality had, it is true, occurred to earlier thinkers. The Stoics had said, 'There is no difference between Greeks and Barbarians; the world is our city', and Seneca had urged kindness to slaves, for 'are they not men like ourselves, breathing the same air, living and dying like ourselves?' Long before that, even, the same idea has been voiced by the heretic Pharaoh, Akhnaton. But such utterances were rare and had little lasting influence. It was the spread of Christianity that carried the germ of equality round the world, though it was not till the eighteenth century that its transference from religion to society and politics began to be made with any general currency.

The idea of liberty, the second implication which we have discovered in democracy, has likewise taken its time in emerging, and its gathering stream has been fed by diverse tributaries.

One reason for the slow emergence of the deeper meaning of democracy has been the persistence of a cramping framework of thought. Democracy has been conceived too much in terms of political form or of legal status. The 'equality' of the French Revolution was merely equality for rich and poor in the eyes of the law, the abolition of legal impediments to economic enterprise. This was reasonable enough in eighteenth-century France, since this was the character of the inequalities that existed at that time and place. But, transferred to other times and places, *égalité de droit* has not sufficed to bring in its train *égalité de fait*. The same defect in the conception of liberty has hindered its realization, and the outcome is the type of formal

democracy with which the world is to-day only too familiar, the democracy which, as Anatole France put it, consists in the rich having the same right as the poor to sleep under the arches of the Seine.

The last century and a half have seen the promulgation of many democratic constitutions, proclaiming in eloquent language the rights and liberties of the citizen. But unfortunately they have, like the Kellogg Pact, omitted to specify the means of substantiating their principles. It would be unjust not to mention at this point the one constitution which repairs this emasculating omission—the new Constitution of the U.S.S.R. Think as we may of what goes on in Russia, we cannot but acknowledge that this document sets a wholesome example in realism, for it stipulates the physical conditions without which its principles cannot become practice (see, e.g., Articles 118-121).

Our democracies have reached the stage where they are challenged to supply the means of realizing their ideals. An ideal is a precious thing: it awakens, it gives a vision, it stimulates endeavour. But if the time arrives when it could perfectly well become reality and the idealists halt and refuse to advance, history will not stand still for them. Their movement will be discredited and the discredit will attach itself to their ideal. Men will banish it from their minds in disgust and, most probably, join the nearest movement that writes on its banner the denial of that ideal.

This is what we are seeing in the popular enthusiasm for Fascism in one country after another. Men and women who are weary of empty talk and ineffectiveness hurry to support leaders who will rob them of their liberty and dragoon them to the service of those who live by inequality. It is no wonder that those who engineer such movements take particular pains to denounce democracy and all its—not works, I fear—but words. Nor is it an accident that they find themselves at cross purposes with Christianity.

The fact of the situation is that, as Professor Macmurray has said, our so-called democracies are not democratic *societies*; they are only democratic States.

Now, education is interested in States only

as a matter of practical adjustment. But it is interested in society by the very nature of its function. For education is, as Professor Tawney said at our Cheltenham Conference, the art of promoting the growth of human beings. And, since children are not growing merely during the hours in which they are attending school, what educates them in fact is 'the impact of the total social environment on the whole personality'.

I should say that democracy is the only form of society that is educational. If it is to function successfully, it must promote the growth of human beings. It is the only form of society that demands the highest qualities in the largest number of citizens. It can give scope to all the valuable forces in man, while his bad qualities are a danger to it. Forms of society which abolish equality and freedom, on the other hand are obliged to employ the worst sides of human nature—and can only fill men's lives by stunting their development and thereby attenuating their desires.

That this contrast is true, a comparison of countries at the present day will show. The totalitarian country which had previously attained the highest educational standard is Germany. Since 1933 the actual quantity of education has been deliberately cut down. Time which used to be given to educational work in the child's life has been sacrificed to other activities. The amount of knowledge taught has been severely restricted in the interests of political indoctrination. And the Nazis boast of their success in drastically reducing the number of students in places of higher education. It is a necessity for a Fascist State that its people shall be under-educated. In countries where democracy is, even partially, an operative idea the movement is all the other way; there is at least a continuous agitation to extend education.

At the present moment we are more conscious of the weakness of democracy in failing to fashion society than of its strength in upholding the value and rights of the individual. But the latter is important too. It is one of the points where democracy stands on a fact which its opponents are struggling to circumvent. The fact in question is that intelligence and desire will exist only in individuals.

The notion that by erecting an authority which exacts belief and obedience you get rid of individual choice and acceptance is a fallacy. To believe a proposition on authority is no less an act of individual acceptance than to believe by the exercise of your own reason. No one can accept an authority for you ; to do so is your own personal decision, and this function of decision is inalienable. If you choose to take your beliefs on the authority of someone else, you are, so to speak, dining *table d'hôte* ; if you consider propositions one by one and make up your own mind about them, you are dining *à la carte* : in both cases you decide on your dinner. The same is true of obedience. If you take orders from someone else, it is you who accept the authority who gives those orders. You can always refuse obedience, if you are ready to stand the consequences. If, for fear of punishment or death, you decide to carry out orders of an authority you do not acknowledge, that is still your own decision, just as much as if you gladly carry them out because you assent to the claims of the authority.

This is a fact which democracy faces and accepts. Its opponents deny this fact and make up fancy theories to explain it away. But in practice they have to forget their theories and use all their resources to induce individuals while they are young to choose the *table d'hôte* creed of the ruling authority and accept its claim to unquestioning obedience. Anti-democratic education confines itself to childhood and youth, in fact, because all it wants is to condition for ever the individual's reflexes.

It is interesting to notice that the fact of the individual is proving more intractable than cynics might have expected. The authoritarian principle strains the higher types of individual to breaking point. In Germany, after over five years of insulation and unremitting propaganda, the degree of docility and credulity attained sadly disappointed its rulers during the crisis of September. More recently still, the pogroms have so disgusted large numbers of decent Germans that they are to be found risking their own safety by giving food and shelter to Jews. But, it may be said, these examples only show that people who were grown up by 1933 could not be easily trans-

formed. What about those whose education has been in the hands of the Nazis? If I may quote personal experience in reply, I was surprised during a month's revisit to Germany in 1938 at the evidence of criticism among intelligent young people and even children. Such youthful critics are no doubt a small minority, but their existence does show that you cannot extinguish the human mind. Let me give an instance. A boy in the top class of a secondary school told me that the fourteen members of his class are all anti-Nazi. Four of them were Nazis when they joined the class, but they were converted through conversation with their fellows.

Democracy has its feet on firm ground in recognizing the fact that it is the individual who chooses, accepts, believes, obeys. More than that, democracy places among the articles of its creed the demand that hindrances to the free exercise of human faculties shall be removed.

This is a point of more than academic interest. It has a direct bearing on that question which worries teachers : can we teach democracy in school? If we do so, are we not doing what we condemn in the Fascists? The answer to this latter question is—No. The two things are not on a par.

The indoctrination practised by the Fascists is designed to make the pupil, at an age when he is impressionable, accept once and for all as the dictator of his actions and beliefs the authority which rules the State. He is to bind himself—hand, heart and head—with bonds as unbreakable as his rulers can make them. He is to abdicate his right to judge for himself on matters of belief and conduct as they arise. The more skilful and subtle the methods used so to condition him, the more difficult it will be for him ever to recover his freedom of choice.

To teach democracy is to do precisely the opposite. It is to keep the individual free to make up his own mind, to change his mind, to give or refuse allegiance to any cause or leader that may cross his path. It tells him, not that there is only one right opinion and all others are so wicked that he cannot even be told what they are, but that opinions on a vast range of subjects differ. It tells him that

this is a natural fact, not an occasional perversity which must be penalized. It tells him that he has the right to hear all sides of all questions—including that of democracy—and judge for himself.

Lest it should be thought that I am maligning the anti-democrats, let me quote the Nazi spokesman at the N.E.F. Conference in South Africa, 1934 (Professor Graf von Dürckheim-Montmartin): 'I cannot agree with the opinion that teachers and parents have no right to impose their ideas and faith on children. To allow freedom is unwise and shows weakness in our faith, degrading it to the level of some private opinion; it is as wrong as the theory which would put a number of different world views before students and leave them a free choice.'

These two opposing lines of educational practice may both be called 'indoctrination', if you like, but they are not on a par. The intended result of Fascist education is that it shall be as nearly impossible as human ingenuity can make it for the ex-pupil ever to escape from Fascism. The intended result of democratic education is that the pupil shall leave the hands of his educators aware, indeed, of the advantages of freedom, but free to relinquish his freedom and take on any yoke he pleases if that should seem good to him. The first is an enclosure whose walls are so high that escape is virtually impossible and no view of the surrounding country can be obtained. The second is a road through open country, with a view in all directions: the traveller is at liberty to remain on the road, turn aside through fields and woods, or, if he prefers, enter a monastery or get himself locked up for life in the nearest prison. The two are on a par only in the sense in which it is on a par to encourage people to die and to encourage people to live: if you are alive, you can always elect to die, but once you are dead there is no further choice.

It is legitimate, I contend, and not an encroachment on the rights of the child, to teach democracy in this sense. It would not be legitimate to teach him that any particular technique of government, *e.g.* a constitutional monarchy or a parliamentary system, is the only right method. It is the spiritual content

of democracy that we can inculcate without violating any moral principle.

The essence of that content is what we may call humanism, summing up under that term the ideas of liberty, equality and fraternity. As Professor Tawney has said in his noble book *Equality* (to which I am indebted for more than quotations), humanism is the antithesis of mechanism. 'It is the attitude which judges the externals of life by their effect in assisting or hindering the life of the spirit. It is the belief that the machinery of existence—property and material wealth and industrial organization, and the whole fabric and mechanism of social institutions—is to be regarded as means to an end, and that this end is the growth towards perfection of individual human beings. . . . Resting, as it does, on the faith that the differences between men are less important and fundamental than their common humanity, it is the enemy of arbitrary and capricious divisions between different members of the human family, which are based, not upon what men, given suitable conditions, are capable of becoming, but on external distinctions between them, such as those created by birth or wealth.'

The teaching of democracy is not something that can be put across in special lessons or a few selected activities. It must be the life-blood of the school or it is nothing at all. This has important implications, which Mr. Greenough elaborates in his article (pp. 12 to 14). But the school is only part of that matrix in which the young are moulded and which is the total environment, material and personal. At the present day that environment, we must sadly admit, is full of examples of the opposite of democracy. How much of it consists of the antithesis of humanism—mechanism in which human beings are helpless cogs! How much of it is a denial of liberty, equality and fraternity, couched in the formulæ of political democracy! Let us speak bluntly. Without economic security the unhampered formation of opinion is impossible. So long as fear of unemployment, fear of a wretched old age, fear for the future of their children, hang over people's heads like a threatening storm-cloud, there can be no such thing as genuine freedom. So long as class exists, with power and prestige

and privilege and opportunity deriving from birth and wealth, all talk of equality is humbug.

Choice is a natural human desire and an attribute of the free personality. But it can be discouraged to the point of extinction if society makes it perpetually impossible for a man to choose with any effect. Among many young people to-day talk of freedom cuts no ice. 'What are we free to do?' they ask. 'You don't fill your mouth by exercising it in Hyde Park.' These are the sort of disillusioned youngsters who will fall for a dictator: they will prefer his iron rule, with its delivery of certain goods, to a liberty that offers them nothing to hope for. If men are to live happily and well, the good things of political freedom must be supplemented by material ones. And if we are to teach the virtues of democracy with any effect, our pupils must, as Lady Simon says, see it around them and see it working.

To give one instance. Large numbers of children in England are miserably under-nourished (see Miss Charles's article in the last number of *The New Era*). We have a system by which children in elementary schools may be given a daily ration of milk at a reduced price. The extent to which this is actually done varies from district to district, but in any case the provision is quite inadequate to the need. Now suppose a dictator were to seize power in this country. If he had any sense, one of the first things he would do would be

to make this scheme compulsory, extend it to all types of grant-aided schools, increase the ration and abolish the charge. He would thereby be both doing the nation good and winning the hearts of large numbers of his subjects. Why should not a so-called democracy do the same thing? Dictators always take the trouble to supply a number of homely wants. The only answer democracy can make to their challenge is to deliver the goods at least as well.

Our so-called democracy has failed because it has remained a formal thing, securing only a part of the ends for which men strive. It has been slow and ineffective because it has not become a democratic *society*. With all its admirable insistence in theory on the unique value and rights of the individual human being, it has not established the equality and freedom of the human beings who compose it. We must achieve democracy in a social and human sense or we shall lose it in its political sense. In other words, unless the democratic valuation of the individual is realized in terms of society, we must expect to see it overthrown by a form of pseudo-society which denies that valuation but provides a quick, if impermanent, satisfaction of some of men's social needs. Such an overthrow will involve, not only the disappearance of the conditions of all true education, but the abnegation of the values which are at once the reason and the motive-force of education.

VIVIAN OGILVIE

Democracy's Reply to the Challenge of Dictators

W. H. Auden

IF we are democrats, we must think about all that democracy involves. If you do not believe in it, then it is no use pretending that you are democrats—you had better join the other side.

We are seeing the end of Liberal Democracy, and there are two alternatives to it. One of them is Fascism; the other is something which I shall call Social Democracy. I am not very

optimistic about the future of Social Democracy in this country during the next twenty years at least; yet I consider the end of Liberal Democracy a good thing.

Social Democracy and Liberal Democracy have certain things in common:

(1) All democracy, I believe, rests first and foremost on one simple thing—that you believe environment to be more important than

heredity. If you do not believe that—and there are many people who do not—you cannot possibly believe in democracy. Man is the only animal who has been able to continue evolution after biological development is finished. He is the only animal capable of using his intelligence and making choices ; the only animal whose society can develop from one form into another.

(2) The second belief of democrats is that children differ from their parents ; that, while at any given moment people are not equal in talent and ability, the pattern of talent will be altered in the next generation. People who believe that the poor are poor because they are stupid, and that they will have stupid children, will not adopt a democratic form of government.

(3) Democracy also surely believes that moral good, the possibility of moral choice, is not only for the few favoured people, but for the vast majority of ordinary decent men and women. I should like to make a distinction between natural good and moral good. Animals are naturally good in that in what they do they cannot do wrong. When people fall into a habit, it means that they can make no choice ; and when it is a good habit the result is natural good behaviour. A great many people believe that those who are capable of making a moral choice are few, and that the rest of mankind must be disciplined by propaganda and coercion of one kind or another so that they shall become good. This is not the democratic point of view.

These are the three essential theories of democracy. To them the Liberal Democrats added certain other things :

(a) They said that man is born free, that the child is always by nature good and is made bad by society.

(b) One line of Liberalism asserted that man is completely rational and you only have to explain changes to him and he will consider them without being affected by personal and social influences or interests.

(c) Again, Liberal Democracy states that all social coercion is bad. Man is an individual, and the important factor in making society is the individual. To produce the right kind of individual is the task of education. If only I can make my pupils nice, kind, honest people,

then, when they come out into the world, the world will be changed in a generation.

Liberal Democracy has failed, and failed completely. None of us who have anything to do with education, I think, can help feeling that we have had a certain success in giving people educational training and enabling them to do certain kinds of tricks and certain kinds of jobs, but that so far as making citizens or influencing the world in any way is concerned we have utterly failed. The reason is that it is the form of society into which children go when they leave school that dictates very largely the kind of persons they are to become. Take three stockbrokers—one from a Secondary School, one from Eton and one from Dartington : I doubt very much whether in 15 years' time you will be able to tell one from the other.

Moreover, because Liberal Democracy spoke of freedom but ignored justice, its results have been social inequality, class war, lack of social conscience, lack of social cohesion, lack of sociality. Nobody feels that they are needed by society. The strongest feeling of the kind and tender is, 'Well, I can't do anything about it. I must just be a decent chap, and the tough can go their own way.' Liberal Democracy ignored economic methods and we are now reaping the harvest.

Fascism—make no mistake about it—owes its success to the fact that it appeals to the sense of justice of good people. It induces them to swallow something that purports to be real justice. Fascism is the most important problem of the countries of the world to-day. It does not consist simply of one or two men, so that, if Hitler were bumped off, it would disappear. The danger of Fascism arises because Liberal Democracy, by failing to mete out justice in society, has made people feel that freedom is not worth while. Fascism has attacked one by one every tenet of Democracy. It says that heredity is far more important than environment. It says that men are born naturally bad ; that the majority, the masses, are incapable of moral choice. Hitler refers in *Mein Kampf* to the 'rabbit hearts' of the masses. There are a few who do know the good, and it is their job to rule society and compel the majority of the masses to be naturally good. Fascists, again, say that there is here and now the

perfect form of society which will last for ever. The individual can only serve the will of society ; he has no rights of his own. Intelligence is of very little importance in comparison with loyalty. What is important is, not that society should be creative, but that it should be unified.

Unless Social Democracy can answer Fascism, Fascism will succeed, and will deserve to succeed. The first thing that Social Democracy must say is that man is not born free or good. What he becomes depends on the kind of society in which he lives. Children are without any kind of social life at all. Take a baby. It is a bundle of unconditioned reflexes, and it only becomes rational when it learns to talk and think through the social media. If a society is based on certain values of profit-making, nothing you can do will prevent the people who live in that society from adopting these values, because the power of the individual is very small. You will say that there is no perfect form of society, but you will not say, 'All societies are pretty bad ; let me withdraw myself and lead my own life'. You will say that some forms of society are better than others and will fight to establish better forms. You will say that the only possible solution to the problem of freedom and unity is social justice, that so long as society is unequal and unjust, democracy, whatever your political form, is a sham. Your new society will expect and demand the right to control the interests of groups which threaten to upset the justice of society, and it will take steps to check those who are now maintaining that injustice.

The effect of such a view on education and on teachers must first be, I think, to make us extremely humble, sceptical and cynical about what we are doing at the moment, because our education is not so far bringing people towards a democratic state. On the contrary, it is encouraging them to become more assertive and less interested in the mass of the people ; there is a scramble to get to the top, because people must escape as far as they can from economic pressure. It is no good having a nice progressive school which is like a good society, when your children are going out into a world where economic pressure will immediately attack them. They will not be strong

enough to withstand it, and their reaction can only be either to accept it or to refuse to have anything to do with social action.

In the second place, teachers will realize that their first job now is to take part in political action, for as long as society is unequal as it is, the whole idea of democratic education is a sham. Unless all the members of a community are educated to the point where they can make a rational choice, democracy is a sham. The combination of social inequality with democratic forms of government means either mob rule or dictator rule by those who know best how to handle and inflame the mob. The primary demand of all educationists must be for equality of educational opportunity ; otherwise, the first law of democracy—that environment should master heredity—is violated.

I know that this will mean that probably, if you do take part in political activity, half of you will lose your jobs. But until teachers are prepared to fight for the kind of society in which the work they do can have real effect, education is not worth considering.

I think teachers are going to be much more interested in adult education and less in child education, because democracy does not imagine that people are finished when they are 14, 18, 21, or whatever age we turn them out, and that after that they have nothing to do but to carry out their jobs. Naturally the Fascist States are extremely interested in child education, because they do not want people to develop on their own. To them, if the child can receive its ideas by the time it is 12, then the chief work is done, apart from vocational training. In a Fascist State the only general education required of the average citizen is military. But in a Social Democracy education has a double task : to train for a particular vocation, and to equip all citizens for an intelligent political life.

Frankly I am not very optimistic about what the bulk of teachers in this country are likely to do. Enormous pressure will be brought—is, as you know, already being brought—to bear on the majority of teachers who work in our state schools to confine their activities to the classroom. There is a temptation for those who work in the more favoured schools,

particularly if they are interested in their actual job, to feel that if they can concentrate on their own children in the school, that is the most that can be expected of them. Well, it is not. Nothing will do short of a determination by everybody who is interested and who believes that democracy is a kind of society worth having, to delay no longer in

attacking the central problem. And that problem is not one of educational technique; it is primarily a problem of freedom, a problem of social justice.

[*This version of Mr. Auden's speech has had to be published without his consent and—more serious—without his corrections. Mr. Coade has withheld permission to publish his speech as the substance of it is appearing in a book this month.—ED.*]

Bias and the Treatment of Controversial Topics

Michael Stewart

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ONE of the first things that a great many people say when they hear education for citizenship urged as a function of the school is: 'That will mean introducing into the school controversial subjects.' We run a risk, I think, of approaching this matter from too defensive a point of view, as if the fact of handling controversial topics as part of the school curriculum were something to be excused and minimised. To my mind, the fact that certain subjects include highly controversial topics is actually a recommendation for their use as school subjects, and we should approach them, not with excuse or defence, but with enthusiasm.

In the first place, this idea is by no means so new as is commonly supposed. A study, for example, of examination papers particularly of the post-school certificate stage, will reveal the extraordinary extent to which the teacher of many subjects is obliged to handle controversial topics. I would not suggest, of course, that because all examination syllabuses require something, that thing is inevitably of educational value. But the teaching profession has been, in fact, required to deal with controversial topics for some considerable time, because certain subjects cannot be adequately handled as a basis to learning without the introduction of a great deal of controversial matter.

The subjects I have in mind are chiefly economics, history, and politics. Now, an economics examination paper may well contain a question requiring students of 17 or 18 to

discourse on the advantages or disadvantages of a planned economy, *i.e.* they are required to take one of the most hotly disputed questions of economic theory at the present day and examine it. Unless you handle this controversial subject you are going to cut out of economics its whole centre and heart, and much of what gives it any serious importance at the present time. One could multiply examples in economics. One notices, for instance, that it would be difficult to expect a student to know anything about the theory of money or the organisation of banking, without having to handle also the problem of the trade cycle, and the moment you did that you would again be on highly controversial ground.

With regard to history, one might notice in passing that the matriculation examiners have recently added a new period of modern history, going up to 1931, and, of course, it is a natural and inevitable development that they should do so. We cannot expect historians to take the view that history stops conveniently, shortly before the birth of people to be examined in the subject. It would, I think, defy the greatest ingenuity to handle a period of history closing at the end of 1931, without referring to controversial matters. No one can discuss the Treaty of Versailles as if it were a problem in geometry. No one can examine the development of Russia during that period without it occurring to at least some bright pupils of the class to enquire whether the present form of Russian Government was or

was not a good thing. The same problem would occur about the rise of Facism during that period.

As to politics, it is possible to study it in such a manner that one's attention is drawn very largely to the mere machinery of administration. But, even if we do not disagree violently on so academic a subject as the actual methods of procedure in the British Parliament, questions would be bound to arise. I think it would be impossible for any child to study how a Bill is turned into an Act of Parliament without asking why the process is so long and so complicated, and whether there are not possible improvements that might be made.

I believe a certain amount of diffidence with regard to education for citizenship arises from the belief in many people's minds that if you accept the idea of education for citizenship, then you must immediately start your classes wrangling on the most talked of political controversies of the day. I would suggest, from the examples which I have given, that you do not jump straight into controversial matters. There is a prelude to it in which you are studying the accepted and admitted facts, the background against which the controversy takes place. I have suggested up to now that it is pointless to sketch in a background of facts and go no further. It is equally true, of course, that you must put in that background if any discussion of the controversial issues is to be worth while or of any educational use. The teacher's problem, then, is going to be first of all that of providing students with that necessary background of fact and accepted first principles which are necessary to the handling of the controversial topics. But I would again stress that being able to conduct a political argument to any purpose is a difficult accomplishment. It is also an extremely useful accomplishment, and one which it is imperative that a large proportion of citizens in a democracy should possess. We have, I think, to make it plain to students in the social sciences that not only do people most violently disagree on a great many topics, but that it is perfectly right and natural that they should disagree. I think that our approach to the teaching of the social sciences has been wrong, in that we have endeavoured

to hide from the children the fact that there is more than one opinion on the state of things in the world to-day.

It is on that point, I think, that we have got to make the greatest change. In a free country people disagree, hold different opinions, and are constantly endeavouring to solve the problem of what we shall do by discussions, arguments, majority decisions. We should regard that as a fact of which it is very desirable to make our pupils aware, a fact that gives interest and colour to the world, and we should get the pupil to appreciate that it will be a great advantage to him, and an addition to his own interest in life and happiness when he is fully equipped to take an effective part in the constant inter-play of opinion which is life blood to a democratic state. The Governments of totalitarian states require that their citizens should hold certain opinions. Is anything of the kind possible or desirable for a democracy? When the question is asked, what does a Democracy expect its citizens to believe, perhaps the first part of the answer is, that they should believe that it is a good thing to argue with one another; they should believe that there must of necessity be disagreements in the world; that people and ideas cannot easily be classified into two classes—the good and the wicked; that it is a duty to search for right opinions, by the method of discussion and argument.

So far from this being undesirable in any way it is one of the important facts of the world that they should be encouraged to realize, and they should also begin to realize, that in due course when their minds are sufficiently mature it is the duty of the citizen of a democratic state to hold views. It may be remembered that one of the laws of Solon was, the people who were to be penalised were those who would not put themselves on either side of the dispute. He held that a person of that sort was no good as a citizen of a democratic country.

If the teachers are themselves to approach this difficult task, clearly one of the chief problems they have to face is the drawing of the dividing line between fact and opinion.

I believe it is possible to draw that line. Again I would suggest one or two examples. It is an admitted principle of economics that

freedom of trade over wide areas permits an increase of wealth. One can, I think, see that it is also an admitted first principle that if any one wants to interfere with that trade, the burden of proof is on him to show that certain peculiar circumstances exist in this case. Then you may raise the question, what were the particular circumstances of Great Britain in 1931; did the particular circumstances exist then which made it desirable from any particular point of view that Great Britain should adopt a tariff policy? I quote that as an example. We have to draw a line between what is fact and where controversy begins. Controversy really begins where the facts are so many and so vast that nobody can be quite sure that he is right about all of them, and consequently there must be room for differences of opinion. Sometimes this arises in the teaching of history.

After dealing with a considerable volume of admitted facts, one can then raise controversial issues, *e.g.* what is to be said as to the policy of the Government of the present time? Do the facts as we have stated them encourage us to accept the materialist conception of history? In politics there are certain admitted facts about the House of Lords. For instance, what are its powers? These are the basis of the controversial question of what is the proper thing to do with the House of Lords at the present time. It must be admitted that it is sometimes a little difficult to draw the line. If, for instance, one made statements with regard to the attendance of Peers in the House of Lords, it would be an open question whether one was stating a fact or hinting at an opinion. Most emphatically such difficulties may appear if one were dealing with the foreign policy of the Government at the present time, although there are, of course, a large number of admitted facts regarding certain events that have happened. Then there arises the great controversial question, what is to be the attitude in foreign policy of a democratic state towards Fascist Dictatorship? A considerable number of facts can be quoted as evidence for each of the two or more attitudes that a democracy may take up. The teacher thus has a considerable task in pointing out where the boundary lies between matters of fact and matters of opinion. He can, of course, assist

by putting his student in touch with the reputable sources of fact. The teacher can give instruction in how to handle the reading of newspapers and periodicals so as to sort out fact from opinion.

This task is, of course, a difficult one requiring a good deal of skill, but it is not one where principles are very difficult to understand, it is not one which raises tremendous difficulties of conscience. One comes next to the question of matters of opinion. What is the teacher's position? I would suggest first of all that when you are dealing with matters of opinion there is one method that it is essential to employ, the method of regular and very free discussion among the members of the class, the teacher participating in the class as a chairman. In the course of the discussions the teacher will find to some extent that he has to act as a critic.

I have in mind two examples of my own experience. There is one student who will invariably assume that the line of the Communist Party is in all circumstances accurate, and who is capable of adapting any fact or line of argument to stress that thesis. Another whose admiration of Mr. Chamberlain is such that if Mr. Chamberlain were to bring in a bill requiring us all to walk on our hands, he would inevitably go around praising the discovery of a cure for foot troubles. The type of attitude is not confined to children.

At such points, of course, it is the duty of the teacher to point out certain fallacious methods of argument. This type of person will use one line of argument in order to press points vividly home, and will immediately discard it and adopt an entirely different set of principles when he wants to press something else to which the first line of argument will not apply. Part of the teacher's job is to keep an eye open for such methods of argument. He runs a grave danger there that he will appear as a purely destructive critic. His pupils will go away saying, 'Lots of people in the class seemed to have ideas, but the teacher proved they were wrong, so on the whole it is better not to have ideas, or keep them quiet'. That is one of the great reasons why, in my judgment, if a teacher holds an opinion he should state what it is, so that he

shall not appear purely as a destructive critic. And I hold that view further because I believe that all of us are inevitably formed by our upbringing and by the economic level to which we belong. Therefore, if we endeavour to be impartial, we shall not completely succeed, even if we satisfy our conscious mind that we succeed. In these circumstances it seems to me proper that the people we are teaching must know what views we do hold so that we do not teach our views under the disguise of greater impartiality than human beings have any right to claim. I may say that this view, which I have expressed in other places, has sometimes been treated as if it were new or extraordinary. Casting my mind back to my own schooldays, I do not find that the expression of opinions by teachers is a new thing in education.

I say, therefore, that the teacher, if he has an opinion, should express it. I think that this will mean that teachers who have previously been expressing certain opinions under an impression that they were facts, will now realize that they are opinions. I am not suggesting that it should be the main object of the lesson to stress the teacher's opinions in front of the children, but that the teacher is engaged in a discussion, a discussion which has got to be constructive as well as critical; that he will have the most encouraging effect on the people with whom he is in contact if he shows himself to be a whole human being, not a human being deprived of the faculty of holding an opinion. His opinion should be simply one among the other opinions which will be expressed in the course of class discussion.

Now what is likely to be the reaction of the class to that? At a Conference held by the Association for Education in Citizenship, which has devoted a good deal of study to this problem, the opinion was expressed by some, though strongly disagreed to by others, that the average child would tend to uphold teacher's opinion because it was teacher's opinion. Some took the view that this was more likely to occur among girls than boys. My own experience is that there are some people of that type, but they are not on the whole in the majority, and it is more a matter of

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individual character than of sex. With such children the teacher's most difficult problem is not 'How shall I avoid thrusting my own opinion on the class', but 'How shall I get the children to hold any opinions at all, to see that it is necessary to do so?' I think that the answer is: by getting them to recognize that the holding of opinions is an essential and intensely interesting activity. In matters of personal behaviour I suppose we must expect to get a child to behave by example rather than by pressure, and I believe the same to apply in this matter of interesting him in public affairs.

Another type of child may be called the gramophone—his opinions are evidently not his own but come from some other source. In this case again the teacher has got to be highly critical, but I think that if any force is to be attached to his criticism he has got to show he is not merely the type of person who can pick holes in other people. Then there are, of course, those students who, without being what I call gramophones, are liable to

become keen partisans, and it is to them, I suppose, that the teacher is most indebted for making the class interesting.

It seems to me that the teacher has the obvious duty not to make use of his actual disciplinary authority or, perhaps, personal prestige to turn out people who hold his opinion, still less to distort the facts. On that I take it we should all be agreed. He has a further duty to show that the matters about which there is difference of opinion in human society

are supremely important, and that it is a public duty to hold opinions of one's own about them, and to be able to modify these opinions when the weight of evidence appears against them, and to defend them with courage and intelligence when the weight of evidence appears to be for them. That is the idea which most needs to be stressed in civic education at the present time, and in my judgment the teacher should attempt that task both by precept and example.

The Training of Responsible Citizens

A. Greenough

Former Headmaster of the William Rhodes Senior Boys' School, Chesterfield

AT the risk of being thought dogmatic, or even merely academic, I will define the responsibility of the citizen of the democratic state as responsibility to those ideals of goodness, truth, and beauty which the individual accepts in his heart and practises in his life. As concerning the attributes of citizenship may I paraphrase the Board of Education's suggestions and state that he desires the common good, is prepared to make sacrifices to secure and maintain it, cares for all that is lovely and of good report, is enlightened in his interests, impersonal in his judgments, ready in sympathy for whatever is just and right, effective in the work he sets himself to do, and willing to lend a hand to anyone who is in need of it.

In these attributes there are two processes involved. The good citizen of the democratic state must not only recognize the common good, he must desire it, not only appreciate what is lovely and of good report, he must care for it, not only know what is just and right, he must be sympathetic with it, not only able to lend a hand but willing to do so, and so forth, and the principle of government and control in a democratic state rests on the assumption that each citizen possesses these attributes, which are clearly not only intellectual but also emotional and spiritual. He will exercise intellectual judgment in choosing

leaders of integrity and worth, and in contributing wisely to that intangible but forceful thing, public opinion. I think we are ready to agree that this aspect of the problem of training of citizens is highly important, and that schools are aware of it and do take steps to solve it.

The method of attack and its details, if not agreed upon, are the subject of discussion in other quarters. The degree of emphasis to be laid on content (for knowledge) and method (in thinking) is one example which we can leave to the battleground of the British Association. The aspect with which I propose to deal is rather the spiritual aspect of the problem—the inculcation of the motives of citizenship—to which I believe we rightly accord the greatest and first importance.

I agree that over-emphasis on this aspect, or any attempt to keep it separate and distinct from the intellectual aspects, is a fallacy, for in the personality the processes are neither separate nor independent. For example, there must be very few who, perceiving wherein lies the common good, deliberately reject it in favour of personal or class interests, but there must be many whose prejudices make them see in the common good merely the mirror of selfish aims. I suppose all our thinking reflects our prejudices and desires. This separating of the two processes, therefore, I put forward

merely as an objective way of regarding the problem.

In a democratic state it is assumed that each member of the community (or at least a majority) is urged by worthy motives and imbued with high ideals. Also that he is spiritually active and dynamic—not merely passively receptive and able physically and intellectually to fulfil his duties—but actually contributing to making the motive force and vitality of the state itself. He is part of the state; it is not something external to himself.

Can the schools do anything about this? I know that the psychologists hold that our pre-school experiences determine most forcibly our social behaviour. I know also the more pedestrian argument, that the school takes the child only for a limited period of time (in the elementary schools $5\frac{1}{2}$ hours out of 24), and that, therefore, its influence is overwhelmed. I don't think we are justified in sheltering behind these—which are in effect defeatist arguments. The school is, after all, a controlled environment in which emotional health is stimulated, where feelings are freed even as we attempt to free thought. What can the schools do?

Recognizing that the machinery of school is designed for instruction in the intellectual processes, with the later and acceptable provision for physical education, one's immediate reaction, I think, is to invent some new *machinery* which will afford training and practice in the ideals of citizenship. For example, if we are persuaded that the child should have opportunities to learn that the school is not something external to himself but that he is part of the school, we are tempted to devise new machinery to implant such learning. Infants polish their desks, take care of pets, plants, and apparatus; juniors develop this idea and seniors may aspire to organize and control some part of school life—clubs, sports, dinners, or they take part in school government through House and School Councils, voluntary service corps to look after the garden and so forth. I agree that such schemes are useful; I have adopted some in practice. If I appear unenthusiastic about them, it is because I don't think that they alone can lead us to salvation and they may

well be a snare and a delusion. My doubts in the first place spring from the fear that ultimately the machinery itself becomes the main concern—another school objective. This choosing of immediate—and often artificial—objectives often turns us away from our main purpose, the development of the child. There is an inherent danger in such practice.

Secondly, I fear that the very success of the idea, and its novelty, encourages us to be too ambitious, crediting the child with powers of judgment and capabilities that he has not yet attained, and putting too great a strain on him for the sake of appearance. Alternatively, we draw up elaborate paper schemes which are so limited in practice that they accomplish little or nothing. I am thinking of student councils which are not allowed to discuss the staff (as being above reproach) or the regulations (which are fixed for us). In such conditions the business becomes little more than a silly game, and the intelligent child must think: 'if that's democratic control I'll give it up'.

It is, however, chiefly the soundness of the principle I question. The idea that we can adequately train for citizenship by this or that specific is wrong. The sentiments which are at the basis of good citizenship are developed as we live. It is, therefore, the whole machinery of school which calls for examination. It is no use giving half an hour a week to an activity designed to show all the blessings of co-operative effort, if all the rest of the activities are actuated by competition. It is no use giving freedom in some silly meaningless detail if for the rest of the time efficiency is maintained by an unquestioned authority. Is the efficiency of the school maintained by the use of unworthy motives (fear, competition, aggression) or the exploitation of worthy motives (loyalty, self-respect, affection, honour)? Authority, orderliness, quietness—are they maintained in the school for the sake of appearance or because it is flattering to the adults associated with it, or are they maintained as conditions of freedom? In fact, is our school sincere or spurious? Are those qualities which we value—zeal, industry, loyalty, truth, sense of duty—an expression of the life within or merely the response to some external stimulus which rests in the school or its system? An honest

answer to these questions would be the first step to providing the conditions in which may be formed those sentiments which are at the basis of all good social and individual relationships.

I suggest that the answer will always lead to an examination of the extent to which the school follows the child's interests. In its worst form the school may be repressive, crushing his vitality until we can teach him something or impress something else on him. In its more generous forms the school attempts to interest him, and this is often another way of cheating him of his real interests. Rarely does it really and truly follow his interests. When it does we are less likely to maintain efficiency by instilling motives which are anti-social in character. We see the energy which comes from the natural flow of vitality, the knowledge which results from the free play of intellect, the evident care and thoroughness which arises from a right sense of values, and the happiness which accompanies the feeling that they are doing things worth doing, and doing them well. If this is correctly interpreted we take care to preserve the flow of vitality, in the free play of intelligence, the right sense of values, and the doing of things worth doing. We have energy, knowledge, care, and thoroughness taking care of themselves—they will be the result, the fruit of this growth. Unfortunately, it is possible to produce some appearance of this sort of thing without the reality.

Now it is interesting to note that wherever experimental work is carried out in an attempt to cater more fully for the child's needs we find the normal machinery of school—time-tables,

classes, schemes of work, is a hindrance. Are we ready to scrap this at one fell swoop? I don't think so. New techniques have to be tried—techniques of organization and teaching (if teaching is the right word here), and unless we recognize this fact we shall embark upon a paper-scheme which will either head for failure or be pure humbug. We are not ready for a sweeping change even if it were practical. In the meantime we must compromise. There are many indications that these new techniques are being applied by those who work with the Nursery Classes. I believe that the peculiar conditions of attendance arising from Exemptions provide the occasion for the practice of new techniques at the top of the school. The repercussions must be felt throughout the whole system. I have seen in my own school the influence of free group activities affecting the practices in the rest of the school—not in a spectacular way, but always I feel towards the establishment of the conditions in which the boy feels happy and free from strain.

I believe that emotional health is the basis of all good citizenship in a democratic state. If it appears that I have no specific course to offer you, if I cannot hold this or that before you and say 'try it', it is because I feel that education for citizenship is not a separate problem. We need to keep steadfastly in mind a conception of education as the development of the whole man. In accordance with that conception we shall seek the development of the child not as an embryo citizen or embryo anything else, but because he is an individual soul.

Practice in Straight Thinking¹

H. W. Heckstall-Smith

Headmaster of
Chippenham Secondary School

I PROPOSE to put before you a number of methods of forming the habit of unbiassed judgments. Numbers 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6 have been tried out in schools with which I

have been connected, so that I can vouch for their usefulness.

I. Foreign Guests

When I was at Ludlow Grammar School, one of our masters spent a holiday, partly on the French side of the Rhine, partly on the German. He made friends with both French-

¹ NOTE.—This article though submitted for correction to Mr. Heckstall-Smith, was not written by him, but is a transcript of shorthand notes of his speech at the Hoddesdon Conference on October 23rd, 1938.

men and Germans, including some who were studying English with a view to becoming teachers of the language. In the enthusiasm of the moment he promised to arrange for them to come and stay for a while in Ludlow. When he returned he set about trying to put this plan into execution. The Grammar School is a day school, so that it meant persuading parents to invite a foreigner to stay with them. He pointed out to them the great advantage their sons would enjoy if they had in the house a native of the country whose language was being studied. They appreciated the argument, and invitations were secured for several French and German young men to come to Ludlow for a term.

They were not allowed, of course, by the Home Office to work at the school in any way that would take bread out of an Englishman's mouth, but we found plenty for them to do. They could give extra lessons and coaching, which we should not otherwise have been able to arrange, and they could talk their languages with the boys. They entered into the life of the school and, in debates, for instance, expressed freely the views of their countries on controversial matters.

Since the scheme was started in 1934 over forty Frenchmen and Germans have stayed in Ludlow in this way, and the result has been, not only a great impetus in the learning of the two languages, but a broadening influence, real international friendship and understanding, and the formation of a habit of considering the various sides of controversial issues.

II. Foreign Language School Magazine

Arising out of these visits, a school magazine was started, which is written entirely in French. It is called *Le Petit Ludlovien*. Thanks to having had so many foreigners at the school, the magazine now has quite a staff of foreign correspondents. They write periodically from their own countries, so that the school has reports of the French and German points of view from men who are known as friends.

To make a success of such a magazine, it is essential that it should contain all the school news, and especially the gossip and scandal. *Le Petit Ludlovien* prints letters on grievances of

all kinds, written with an outspokenness that would be difficult in a school magazine in English. The stickier parents and teachers never understand French, and cannot therefore be shocked, and invective in French cannot be vulgar and ugly, for the language is precise and good-mannered; and people who have taken the trouble to put a grievance into accurate French have very likely got a new view of it anyway. The magazine is used for ordinary school French teaching, and as one never knows where one may find a bit of scandal in it, it is always carefully and thoroughly read.

III. History Debates

When I was Headmaster of Ludlow Grammar School, the very enterprising History Master, Mr. F. G. Reeves, wanted to see how somebody else taught History. Mr. E. W. Hickie, H.M.I., put him on to Mr. Mainwaring, History Master of Dudley Grammar School, who runs a scheme making great use of debates.

A programme of the term's work is prepared in advance, arranged in five or six units of a fortnight each. Each fortnight contains:

- (a) a quantity of reading;
- (b) a number of written questions;
- (c) two speeches on subjects connected with the reading, but needing further research. Each speech is followed by questions;
- (d) a debate on a subject of the period studied, with four speakers on the paper and the debate thrown open to the house at the end of the set speeches.

Speeches and debate are run entirely by the form, one of whom is Chairman. The teacher sits at the back, merely giving advice if needed, in speeches or debates, but conducts other lessons in the ordinary way.

If there are fifteen complete fortnights in a whole year, each member of a form of thirty can make one set speech followed by questions, and speak on the paper in two debates, during the year. In the later parts of each debate, nearly everyone speaks every time.

This method, besides being carried out by Mr. Mainwaring at Dudley Grammar School (Boys), is now in operation under Mr. F. G. Reeves at Ludlow Grammar School (Boys),

and under Miss V. F. Browning at Chippenham Secondary School, Wiltshire (Boys and Girls).

At Ludlow this work has led to the formation of Senior and Junior Debating Societies, which did not exist before, and at both Ludlow and Chippenham there has been a pretty obvious increase of awareness and willingness to think and try to express views clearly.

IV. 'Physician, heal thyself'

It must be acknowledged that, unless teachers themselves are truthful, generous-minded and capable of unbiassed thought, no method can be very effective. Teachers who are in charge of controversial subjects should therefore be at great pains to cultivate these qualities. The fact of the matter is that very few opinions held by anyone depend on reason in the first instance. 'Progressive' and 'intelligent' teachers are specially untrustworthy in this respect, because they tend to regard themselves as specially reasonable, so that they are specially slow to admit their prejudices. It is a great help for a teacher to conduct, with expert aid (such as an analyst), an inquiry into the contents of his mind in order to discover the real reasons for which he holds his opinions as distinct from the 'rationalization' by means of which he accounts to himself for them. When he has discovered some of his own real motives, he will be more sensible and sympathetic, and less likely to be shocked or morally superior, about the motives he can sometimes fairly easily observe in other people.

V. Straight and Crooked Thinking

With Sixth Forms, or post-certificate pupils, it is extremely useful to make a study of the methods of thinking. This can be done with the help of *Straight and Crooked Thinking*, by R. H. Thouless, or *Clear Thinking*, by R. W. Jepson, both excellent books. And they should be supplemented by the extraction of examples from the daily papers, illustrating the use of fallacies and other dodges of crooked thinking from advertisements, political speeches, editorials, etc.

VI. 'Spectator' questions

The *Spectator* has recently been selling to schools at a reduced price for quantity, and

has been willing to devote a page to questions from schools, under the title 'Current Questions'. Our children took up the idea; they read the *Spectator* together with the *New Statesman* and other papers, and in so doing constantly came to a point where they found themselves short of some necessary information. They then sent in their questions, and the 'Current Questions' page replied to them. Unfortunately the *Spectator* can no longer find room for the column, but I hope that somehow, in the *Spectator* or elsewhere, the scheme may be revived.

VII. Truthfulness

Mark Twain expressed the opinion that lying should be taught in schools: 'An awkward and unscientific lie is almost as harmful as the truth'. But it is a fact that lying is taught in schools, especially on speech days. Headmasters, chairmen of governors, and others in the public eye should try seriously to speak the truth and nothing but the truth at school assembly, speech days, and similar occasions. Not, of course, the whole truth—that would be most dangerous. But, if we are trying to inculcate a habit of truthfulness, we must set the example.

Note by Speaker

Since the rather incautious sallies in this section caught the eye of the Press, I should like to explain a little more of what I meant.

Oddly enough, some people have really thought—even people in responsible positions—that in quoting Mark Twain I was saying that children ought to be taught to lie!

I therefore state categorically that neither Mark Twain nor I meant this. We both meant that children should be taught, among the very first things, to be truthful. I added that their elders should do more than they now do to teach truthfulness by example.

The speech-day departures from truth, which I censure, are mainly by omission or implication. For example, in an area where, as in very many areas throughout England, school buildings are insanitary and horrible, and the size of classes is appalling, educational and speech-day speeches are consistently optimistic, and, above all, self-satisfied. The

Public School speech-days are, if possible, even more self-satisfied.

It was silly of me to say that to speak the whole truth is dangerous. I do not remember saying it, but the shorthand writers agree in reporting me as having said it. What I should have said was that to speak the whole truth is impossible anyway, because firstly it does not exist, and secondly if it did we should not know it. But to attempt consciously to

speak the whole truth is certainly apt to be dangerous, because it means making judgments, or aiming covert blows at other people, in a way which, unknown to the speaker, is often really prompted by malice or self-righteousness. We must not speak the truth out of malice ; but there is room for a great deal more of the truth in public speaking than is now usual, especially on speech-days, if the authorities are to teach truth by example.

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The Religious and Political Freedom of the Teacher

Shena Simon

**Ex-Chairman of the Manchester
Education Committee**

I PROPOSE to deal with the question of the political and religious freedom of the teacher largely from the point of view of the Local Education Committee. The theory of the religious freedom of the teacher is this : the education authority is not allowed to ask a teacher any question about his religious beliefs. This theory is, I believe, general all over the country. A few years ago a Chairman of the Managers of a Non-Provided School asked an applicant what his religious beliefs were ; a commotion was made, the matter was raised in Parliament, and it was made perfectly clear that he had no right to ask this question.

In the big cities the Local Education Authorities and the committee members do not know the religion of the individual teachers. In the country it is very much more difficult not to know what people's religion is, and I gather, though not from direct experience, that some education committees which are composed predominantly of members of the Church of England do tend to appoint Church of England teachers to a Provided school. It would inevitably be more difficult in the country than in the town for a teacher to be appointed quite regardless of his religious opinions.

Once he is appointed, although all teachers in elementary schools are expected to give religious instruction, he can always arrange under a sympathetic headmaster not to give it, if he has a conscientious objection. There is no difficulty in the towns, because if a headmaster did happen to get a staff composed entirely of conscientious objectors he could ask for the transfer of one or more of them. But in the country transfer is not so easy. I should like to hear what happens there to teachers who do not believe in the fundamentals they are supposed to teach in religious instruction

and who have a conscientious objection to teaching what they do not believe. Freedom in this respect is probably much less in the country than in the town.

There is one point in the new 1936 Act which makes me a little anxious. So far as I understand it, it will be the duty for the first time of the Local Education Authority to know the religion of a certain number of its teachers, because it will make grants to non-provided senior schools and will have to see that the right number of teachers in these schools are reserved teachers. It seems, therefore, that in staffing these schools the authority will for the first time take official notice of the religion of its teachers. I think this is a mistake, though it may be a misfortune that could not be helped. At present, where the relations between non-provided managers and the local authority are of a friendly nature, managers nearly always come to the education authority to ask for teachers for Church of England or Roman Catholic schools, so the Authority must know which teachers are prepared to teach in these schools. In our application form in Manchester we ask what type of schools they are prepared to teach in. If they say 'Only a provided school', that settles it. But if they say they prefer a provided school but are prepared to teach in a Church school, then we know this much, that they can be asked to teach in a Church school. So far no difficulty has arisen, but if any difficulty did arise, the practice would have to stop.

When we come to the question of political freedom, the theory is the same : the Local Authority is not supposed to ask any questions. And here again the theory is presumably also the practice. In a town it would be comparatively easy for teachers to carry on their duties at school without the authority having officially any knowledge of their political enthusiasms.

But I imagine that it must be more difficult in the country. In some parts, if a teacher were known to be a keen socialist, it might stand in the way of appointment or promotion. There are also parts of the country where, if you are *not* a keen socialist, you do not stand any chance of promotion, but the parts where it is an advantage to be a socialist are somewhat fewer.

If teachers are interested in political affairs and do take part in politics, how does it affect their work in the schools? It seems to me perfectly clear and quite just that the education authority should not concern itself with the political views of its teachers so long as these views are not taught in the schools. The education authority and the State have the responsibility for the schools and responsibility towards the parents, and everybody would agree that in English schools party politics are not to be taught to the children. As a matter of fact, statements that they are taught are remarkable for their rarity, and are seldom, if ever, proved. A little while ago the Conservative Party appointed a committee to inquire into the alleged teaching of Communism in schools. The report recently issued by this committee shows that they found no trace of it. So long as there is no teaching on the lines of party politics we are all satisfied.

One question that always interests me is whether teachers should, in their own interests and those of the service, take an active part in party politics. I can never quite make up my mind whether, as under the regulations of the civil service, teachers who belong to a political party should abstain from taking an active part in politics. It must be extraordinarily difficult for anybody actively connected with politics, whatever his party, to teach certain questions in a completely detached way. I think such people must be very remarkable and a minority. Even if they manage to do so, will the parents really believe that they have done it? And we must remember that, through the parents, public opinion is constantly at work in the school. Yet, if teachers are to be under the same regulations as civil servants, it means taking a large number of the best type of persons out of politics.

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The question has become more urgent because, as the school life has been lengthened and the curriculum is being overhauled, everybody has agreed that more public affairs and more modern history should be taught. When children left school at the age of 11 or 12, they were only taught the three R's. Now, with the enlargement of the curriculum, the question of politics will become much more urgent and more real. But fundamental principles are unaltered.

I am sometimes asked, 'Would you, as a member of the Manchester Education Committee, appoint a teacher who was not a democrat at heart?' I reply, 'What he is at heart is no concern of mine, so long as he does not teach his political views in school. If any teacher were found to be teaching Communism or Fascism in schools, then, as a member of the education committee, I should have something to say. But, if a teacher does not try to teach his political creed in school, it is no concern of mine whether he is a Conservative, Socialist or Fascist.' The questioner then goes on, 'But, if we are to keep our system of democracy in England, ought we not to do something comparable with what they are doing in the schools in Germany? Ought we not to impregnate our children with democratic views in order that they can match the enthusiasm maintained in German schools for Nazism?'

This is a difficult question, but I think it can be argued that the analogy is not quite a

true one. Even if we tried to encourage our children in the schools in favour of democracy, how much effect would it have? How much are children influenced by what they are formally taught and how much by their whole environment? Take the German children. They are taught about the Treaty of Versailles and that racial nonsense about 'Aryans'. But how much effect would it have if it were not reinforced by everything around them? They see the way Jewish children are treated in schools, and this brings home to them the reality of what they are taught. They hear what is said on the wireless, they hear talk about these things on every hand, and if the opponents of these views are referred to, it is in terms of derision and scorn. We do not want a situation of that sort in England. So, if we were to instruct our children in democratic principles, we should not be the only influences bearing upon them. They would hear some people outside the school talking in favour of the German system, others praising the Russian system. They would hear, too, people openly speaking against democracy. Surely a spirit of free discussion in school is the best way of preparing them to meet these rival ideologies.

So I come back to my first point: that if teachers are teaching history and other subjects in an unbiassed way—perhaps I am biassed in saying this—democratic principles emerge from the teaching. It can be shown that democratic principles have made England what it is to-day. All that we ask the teachers to do is to encourage children to think for themselves and

to give them the background of the growth of our institutions. We must admit that we ourselves do not believe in democracy because it is a theory. We believe in its object and we believe that it has paid. Therefore we must be prepared, I maintain—I know the danger—to act accordingly. That is to say, if we want our children to believe in democracy, then all of us in our capacity as responsible citizens should see that they are surrounded by evidence that democracy does deliver the goods. For instance, it is a great cloud on our democratic system that we have not been able to solve the problem of the distressed areas.

We are very reluctant to praise the teachers for anything that is right. Sir John Simon was speaking recently at the Master Cutlers' feast, and referred to the wonderful spirit of the nation during the crisis. I read on hopefully. Surely he would say that that fine spirit was due to the work in the schools by our teachers. But there was nothing about that. He referred to the spirit, but made no inquiry as to how the spirit of England came to be what it is.

I think we are asking too much of the teachers if we expect them in the schools to turn out perfect little democrats. We want the children to be given facts and trained so that they can make their own lives. But teachers are also responsible citizens outside the schools and they must take their share in securing that democracy proves itself to the children as they grow up, not only by what it says, but by what it does.

The State and the Teacher

E. G. Savage

**Senior Chief Inspector,
Board of Education**

WHEN one comes to talk about the intellectual freedom that obtains in England one is on fairly easy ground, for we are generally very much more free in this country than in any other that I know. I need not waste much time on what is happening in totalitarian countries, but I may perhaps quote a sentence that caught my eye on the bookstall here in the little volume entitled

Education in Nazi Germany: 'A whole great nation is now being conditioned by the control of the mind of its youth to accept certain gross fallacies as truth'.

What we want to compare ourselves with, therefore, is not the totalitarian nations, but with the other countries, happily still fairly numerous, where freedom still reigns.

It is particularly interesting, I think, to

compare ourselves with the United States of America, Canada, and other English-speaking countries. In the United States I was surprised to see how limited was the freedom in some cases. It was the central authority who controlled what happened in the schools, even to the choice of textbooks; in more than one state of the Union certain textbooks in each subject are prescribed. In another state, and this in our own Commonwealth, not only are certain textbooks prescribed, but all others are forbidden. This prescription of a syllabus and of textbooks did undoubtedly hamper very much the most progressive teachers, though it may have been a valuable crutch to those who are less gifted or less forward-looking. Whenever one sees an instance of this kind, one is bound to ask how it has arisen, because the Education Authorities of big States are not necessarily composed of stupid or malicious people. In this case the motive was one of the most complete benevolence. The cost of education is a thing to be considered and the prescription of the textbooks was to ensure that in the relatively small state market the cost of books should be kept down. Indeed the textbooks were sometimes admirable, and books which in this country would cost 5/6 were there obtainable for 50 cents. Yet, good as the motive was, I felt the result to be almost wholly deplorable.

The prescription of the curriculum was a similar and perhaps cognate limitation. Certain subjects were to be studied and in a certain order. The reason for this was a desire to make it easier for children who had to transfer for one reason or another from one school to another. This has obvious advantages, but the system severely cramps the style of the teacher. I recall listening to a lesson in Greek History. It was taken by a teacher who followed closely, very closely, the lines of the textbook, which though in itself quite excellent, yet being but a single volume had of necessity very little detail. As the lesson proceeded the great story being unfolded struck me as being deadly dull, with no life in it. Afterwards, when I commented on this to the teacher and wished that he would clothe the skeleton with live details, an illuminating dialogue took place. Apparently he had been

brought up on the same book, for he said: 'But where would you suggest getting more detail?' 'Well, I replied, 'you know there is Grote's *History of Greece*; you will find an immense amount of detail there that would interest your children.' His reply startled me. 'Grote, Grote, is that a good book? Who is the publisher?'

My point is that prescription has the effect of enabling a teacher to carry out what is demanded of him a little more easily, but it may deprive the teaching of any kind of intellectual value or real stimulus.

There are other ways in which a teacher's freedom is curtailed, or in which his initiative may be discouraged. For example, it is extremely dangerous if State officials, who are in daily contact with the schools, have any concern at all with the examinations that are ultimately taken. I know a country in which the Inspectors are very largely concerned with the setting and marking of the examination papers. I am told that when the Inspector goes into the school to attend a lesson the teachers listen to him with entirely undue reverence. I should very much regret it if anything I said in the schools and if anything my colleagues were to say was listened to with respect because of our position in the State machine. We like to go into a school as independent critics, and to have discussions on professional matters as between, at all events comparatively, intelligent persons who are interested in their teaching but brandishing no kind of authority other than experience and good will.

How does the State of this country, represented partly by the Central Authority and particularly by the Local Education Authority—influence the internal work of the schools? In the first place the Central Authority—the Board of Education—accepts no responsibility whatever for the curriculum of the schools. That is the business of the governing body of the school. This will sometimes be independent, sometimes a committee of the Local Education Authority. On them is laid the duty of prescribing the curriculum. If one feels that the curriculum is entirely unsatisfactory, the first person to talk to in theory is the Secretary of these bodies.

In practice the vast majority of governing bodies and Local Education Authorities tacitly delegate their responsibility to the man who is generally best able to carry it out—the headmaster or headmistress, on whose shoulders therefore a tremendous amount of responsibility rests. The Head has the freedom to devise a curriculum and also the responsibility for seeing it followed. I think in some cases possibly too much freedom or perhaps too indefinite a lead is given to the Heads of schools in this respect. I am thinking particularly of great populations in the congested areas where schools are not very distant one from another. In one matter good administration and common sense would suggest that we should not give quite the complete degree of freedom that now exists. Take a secondary school with a headmaster in possession. Suppose he has himself been brought up through the medium of Mathematics and Natural Science. He is forward-looking and he devises a curriculum in which he believes, based in the main on Natural Science and Mathematics. If one discusses with him why he has arrived at that curriculum, he will often find special reasons showing why in that particular place that particular curriculum suits these particular children. Time passes—he retires. He is succeeded by someone who was brought up on the Classics. Within five years I have found an entirely humanistic bias in that school and justified for the same reasons! In other words the curriculum may turn too much on the upbringing of the Head. I suggest that a proper provision of well-balanced secondary education in this country as a whole demands that in the thickly populated areas all varieties of education should be available. I think that one of the things Local Education Authorities might do is, if they control perhaps eight to ten schools, to see that among the group, every type of education is represented, so that every child may find what it needs.

Take another example. Of the modern languages learnt in this country French is by far the widest spread. Probably for every child learning only German there are nine learning only French. In view of the fact that the curriculum cannot be all-embracing and

cannot provide everything, I think that it would be well if some schools in a district were directed to make French their first language and some German.

A Local Education Authority which prescribed the general function of such of its schools would not be seriously curtailing the freedom of the headmaster, for he would be entirely free within the bounds prescribed to seek to realize his own ideals. So far however few, if any, authorities have done anything in this direction.

I have suggested a slight curtailment of freedom in devising the curriculum, but apart from that I am for the greatest possible freedom—freedom to experiment in every way. That this is the attitude of the Board of Education in this country to-day is obvious from its encouragement of experiments in schools. I recall a certain girls' school, which had been working steadily along conventional lines, but which decided after careful consideration that something different was wanted; so in the fourth year of a five-year course they completely altered the time-table, so that for half the week the girls spent their time on cookery, needlework and cognate work, cutting down the total time given to academic subjects to half. The experiment went on for five or six years, not only with the knowledge and acquiescence of the State authorities, but with a special grant of £250 a year to meet the necessary expenditure; such grants still exist for experiments in schools. I recall another school in which particular attention is paid to agriculture; that school still gets a substantial grant to enable it to carry out this experiment. Many too will know of the experiments carried out at a Liverpool School in the direction of increasing the amount of time given to Physical Training and of the experiments at Lincoln. They are described in detail in a book by the headmaster.

When we pass from the Headmaster to his colleagues and to classroom tactics, we have to enquire what is the freedom of the teacher. When the Head or the Governors or Managers have laid down the general lines which the school is to follow, the teacher then faces the problem in his classroom. What freedom has he there? In so far as the State is concerned,

the Inspectorate do not interfere ; the teacher has complete freedom. All he has to do is to be efficient at that particular job. For example, whether a teacher teaches French or any other modern language, or even the Classics, by direct method or by some other method is entirely a matter for him to decide.

Again, until some ten years ago, the majority of schools in this country taught Chemistry and Physics (Botany for girls). There is a general movement now towards teaching General Science, though the exact content of the course is by no means even generally agreed. In many countries General Science would have been introduced by a circular, a syllabus would have been suggested, and the change-over would all have happened in a year. But in England the idea was first mooted, was the subject of conferences in schools, and only steadily after persuasion is there a gradual move over. A certain number of science teachers still do not believe in General Science, and no one will try to force them ; we know that if a teacher is forced to do what he does not believe in he will be rather less than more efficient. I think the Board's general attitude to the curriculum—elementary and secondary—is sufficiently indicated by the title of the document which is published from time to time. It deals with the largest single group of children—those in the elementary schools. The title is 'Suggestions for Teachers', and that title is very deliberately chosen. The Board expects that teachers will read these and follow them up in their own ways. Again, in our Refresher Courses in the Summer time, and in the Short Courses which take place for two, three, or four days during the course of the year, courses which deal with subjects such as handicraft, science, mathematics, no one lays down the law. When he goes back to school the teacher goes back free, to accept or not to accept, our suggestions as he desires. The criterion of his work is whether he is efficient on the lines he has himself laid down.

This freedom of the workman to decide on the technique of his job is, I think, not unimportant. We all know the failings which lack of such freedom produces. In one country I know that if I call at a certain time on a certain date I shall see a certain lesson, and I

know precisely what I shall hear. You may ask what good the schools get out of this measure of freedom. The good, I think, is shown in this. I don't know of any other country where there exists such flourishing Associations of teachers of special subjects. Two such Associations I know very closely—the Historical Association and the Science Masters' Association, whose members are all teachers. Hundreds turn up at the Christmas meetings, and there are extremely lively discussions ; there are keen teachers bringing up their own problems and discussing in the most lively way their various ideas and generally creating a most exhilarating meeting. In some countries such Associations don't exist. There is no need. I once spoke to a friend of mine, a teacher abroad, of the possibility of an Association where teachers would exchange views, but he said : 'Such an Association—what does it do ? We have a syllabus—the State prescribes it. We cannot alter it. What is there to discuss ?'

There is one other agency which is said by some teachers to cramp their style, and that is examination systems. Of course, when in doubt you can always abuse the examinations, but frankly I don't think the examinations in this country are as grim an influence as they are sometimes represented to be. A teacher can take his own line, and many highly successful teachers do take their own line and let the examinations fall into their proper place. If a teacher has ideas so violently in conflict with the syllabus prescribed by the examining body, the school may put forward its own syllabus in lieu of the prescribed one and have its own special papers. Great use has not been made of this facility, but some do undertake different syllabuses. It would be rather embarrassing if everybody in the country did it, but the freedom remains for all to use who will. It is a little surprising that schools do not make greater use of this freedom.

To sum up, therefore, I think it is clear that there is a large amount of freedom enjoyed by Head Masters and a more limited but important degree shared by Assistant Teachers. You may feel that I have touched only on freedom to deal with the technique of teaching at least as regards Assistant Teachers and have

made no reference to other things that matter at least as much as these. Lady Simon has dealt with freedom to deal with politics and with religion, and although this is a matter which is not in my brief, I cannot conclude the discussion on the freedom of the teacher without also coming up against this particular aspect of his work. What freedom has the teacher in matters of public interest, such as politics and religion? Is the teacher really free in the schools to teach or to touch upon matters of this kind just as he thinks and as he believes? The answer to this, I think, is that the State cannot possibly go any further or faster than public opinion will uphold. Public opinion may be slow in making itself felt, but it does do so in the end, and ultimately will find its own methods of expression. It is the proper function of the Local Education Authority to be the mouthpiece of that opinion. It would obviously be manifestly unfair if teachers were given a completely free hand to

preach and teach their own views on these important matters, more particularly in schools to which the State compels parents to send their children. It is in this fact I think that you get the *raison d'être* for the existence of private schools; such schools are subject to no limitations except those determined by the parents who elect to send their children there. If there is a group of parents who desire their children to be brought up in a definite atmosphere a private school is the solution. If, therefore, in a school maintained out of the public purse a teacher's views are in advance of public opinion, perhaps even running counter to public opinion, he must keep those views to himself. I do not think this is a severe limitation of freedom, and the more sincerely a teacher holds views which are contrary to public opinion the more he should realize the necessity for restraining his enthusiasm and for not abusing his position when he meets his pupils.

Note on the Nursery School Number

IT has been pointed out to me that an article published last month, 'A Student Reviews her Training', may be misconstrued, and may therefore do harm, particularly as regards enrolment for one-year post-graduate courses in Nursery Training Colleges. I do not myself feel that the objection is valid. I should have thought that any graduate contemplating such a course would have been confirmed in her intention by the number as a whole, rather than being 'put off' by the article in question.

The young contributor—who by her own showing is not a graduate—asks 'How can children be treated as persons and individuals and grow in true independence when there are at least forty in one group?' I think she is answered by her fellow contributors. It is true that Miss Hawtrey has some very grave things to say about the under-staffing and the inadequate training of many teachers throughout the whole infant school period. But she bases her charges on the immense good that can come to the pre-school child through the trained teacher who has adequate helpers. Miss Maw showed that, great as the intrinsic

difficulties of the nursery school teacher are, they can be met through wise planning and a growing experience.

'No day passes but the teacher meets some problem to be solved or some difficulty to be overcome. Her attempts to find solutions will have the more success as she realizes that the difficulties are not mere isolated incidents, nor simple, unrelated pieces of behaviour, nor even that the child they concern is just "Billy being difficult"'. He is Mr. and Mrs. Smith's son Billy, with brothers, sisters and friends; he is Billy, whose every diverse bit of behaviour is held together by an inner core of personality only to be viewed in its wholeness in the light of all these attendant factors. The teacher's problem is to create an environment in which all the Billies in her care may have opportunity for full development of personality in happy relation to each other.' And Miss May shows both the curious solitariness that the young child can throw about himself when engaged upon play material even in a crowd, and also his emergence from that solitariness into social living. Surely the whole issue is full of ex-

amples of children being treated as individuals and growing in independence.

One further point should perhaps be noted. Probably no nursery school attached to a training college is entirely 'normal'. The need to give the students experience in the school, probably working in shifts, is bound to interfere with the smooth working of the school's rhythm from the child's point of view. I am not denying or condoning my contributor's account of what she saw done. But I am very anxious that no article appearing in this magazine should discourage suitable candidates from taking up work for the two- to seven-year-old. ED.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

THE NURSERY SCHOOL,
69 EVERTON ROAD,
LIVERPOOL.

DEAR MADAM,

I wish to express my deep indignation at the bad taste shown in publishing such an article as 'A Student reviews her Nursery School Training' in the current issue of *The New Era*.

This article is obviously written by an extremely immature girl with only *one* year of training . . . who misses the real essentials of the nursery school.

I consider such an article to be extremely detrimental to the cause for which Miss Margaret McMillan gave her life and for which many others are working so enthusiastically. . . .

In conclusion I only wish to stress how much I deplore the fact that such a magazine as *The New Era* which has in the past professed to support the cause of nursery schools should allow such damaging third-rate material to be published.

I am,

Yours truly,

H. M. EDWARDS (*Superintendent*).

DEAR MADAM,

The review of the 'Student's Nursery School Training' published in the December issue of this paper struck me as being rather ignorant and short-sighted.

I have recently taken a three years course at a Nursery School Training College, no doubt very similar to the one at which the student received her one year's training. My chief impression, on looking back, is of the free and happy life I spent at the College. The Rules were negligible, and the few restrictions that we were asked to comply with were those necessary for the smooth-running life of the community.

The lectures were interesting and extremely helpful, especially those dealing with psychology and educational methods. There was scope and encouragement for reading and forming one's own opinions and views. The lectures actually dealing with Nursery School methods were all the more

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valuable because the Nursery School in which the students have their practical training is closely connected with the College—identical, I feel sure, with the school mentioned in the article I have just referred to. We spent two or three days a week each term with one particular group of children. We were given opportunities to help in the general routine of the shelter, and more particularly in the first year, to observe the organisation and methods used in the school. At the end of a year I had seen and learnt a great deal, and I began to feel that I was almost an authority on education in the Nursery School. But a little knowledge is a dangerous thing. In the second year, when I had a week's intensive teaching practice in one of the shelters, in control of a group of children, I realized, through sometimes bitter experience, that there was much that I had still to learn about the training and management of young children. In fact, it was not until I had been thus humbled that I really began to profit by my experience at the school. For one thing, it taught me how to observe more closely how the children were treated as individual entities, and given freedom for self-expression with the general routine of the day. And as I lived in the neighbourhood, I realized more and more how important this routine was to the happiness and development of the children. In their own homes they lived such irregular and uncertain lives, and in the daily programme of the school they found the security that they lacked. During the third year we visited and had teaching practice in other types of schools for young children, and I was thus able to appreciate the unquestionable advantages of our Nursery School. The children themselves are proof of the benefit derived from their training. They were brighter and more alert, both physically and mentally, than the children from similar homes in the ordinary schools.

Although the conditions of the Nursery School are not ideal, they are as ideal as it is possible to make them under the circumstances.

For example, it would be easier to deal with the children in smaller groups, as in small experimental schools. But in as far as the Nursery School movement aims at solving a national problem, surely it would not be justifiable to confine the schools to smaller groups. The present economic situation



makes it impossible to provide the necessary money for such improved conditions. But even in groups of forty it is possible to give the children opportunity and stimulus to develop their individualities freely, and at the same time they learn to make social contacts and live in a group. And as I read the daily newspapers this seems to me to be one of the most important objects of education. The world suffers from people with undeveloped individuality at the mercy of a few who have never learnt to adjust themselves to life in a community. Surely, then, in this Nursery School are the potential citizens of a true democracy?

SHEILA SMITHSON,
11 St. Paul's Road,
Bradford.

31 QUEEN SQUARE HOUSE,
GUILDFORD STREET, W.C.1.

DEAR MADAM,

I have heard a good many comments on the article in the December *New Era*, 'A student reviews her training', and there seem to have been a good many heated and indignant protests.

I think it is likely that such letters as you have received may have been mainly in the nature of protests, and I felt I should like to put forward a point of view which may not have occurred to many of those who read the article.

I was particularly interested in it because it seemed to me that in that article, one of the fundamental problems of Training Colleges was laid bare. Throughout my work as Superintendent of a Nursery School, and as a research worker also in a

Nursery School, I have had many and varied contacts with students in training; on the one hand, with those whose training has been largely academic, *i.e.* who have been dependent upon the good will of suitable schools for providing occasional opportunities for practice and observation; and on the other hand, with those who have had the good fortune to be in Colleges where practical experience with children, both in the rôle of 'teachers' and of observers, has been an integral part of the training.

Each type of Training College has its peculiar difficulties, but it is the latter type which faces perhaps the greatest difficulty of all—that of providing adequately for the needs of both students and children. Where children are constantly changing hands, as must be the case when a rota of students is continually passing through the Nursery School attached to a Training College, it is inevitable that many problems should arise in connection with the handling of the children.

I feel that it is very necessary to appreciate the enormous problem with which such colleges are faced, in order to appreciate fully the enormous value of their work in training students through actual experience with little children, and I should like to pay a tribute to those Colleges and Nursery Schools where this problem is being faced every day.

Yours sincerely,

DOROTHY MAY.

P.S.—I should like to say at the same time that I think we owe a debt of gratitude to the student who so boldly brought this problem into the light.—D.E.M.

Some Books recommended by our Contributors

<i>Education as a Social Factor</i>	M. L. Jacks
(Kegan Paul)	
<i>Education and the Social Order</i>	Bertrand Russell
(Allen and Unwin)	
<i>Creative Education and the Future</i>	O. Wheeler
(University of London Press)	
<i>Education and Modern Needs</i>	Nicholson
(Ivor Nicholson & Watson)	
<i>Full Stature</i>	H. G. Stead
(James Nisbet)	
<i>Straight and Crooked Thinking</i>	R. H. Thouless
(Hodder & Stoughton)	
<i>Clear Thinking</i>	R. W. Jepson
(Longmans)	
<i>The British Approach to Politics</i>	M. Stewart
(Allen and Unwin)	
<i>Bias and Education for Democracy</i>	M. Stewart
(Oxford University Press)	
<i>Manhood in the Making</i>	T. F. Coade
(Peter Davies)	
<i>Problems of Modern Education</i>	
(Cambridge University Press)	

Book Review

The Fact of Malnutrition. *With a foreword by the Archbishop of York. (Published by Industrial Christian Fellowship. Price 4d.)*

Many of us have at times regretted that as a whole the Churches have been slow to grapple with the problem of malnutrition. The booklet under review is a satisfying attempt to provide churchmen and the lay public alike with an assembly of proven facts. Even without the admirable foreword, the book would be a call to action.

It is not uncommon nowadays in reading books on this subject to have a sense that one is being slowly overwhelmed by the recital of fact after fact. Such an experience is not necessarily an unpleasant one, though it may be disconcerting. The truth is that, the longer we allow a social evil to persist, the higher grows the accumulation of scientific and medical evidence against us. Consider, for example, the cold statements of the number of mothers who die in childbirth or who lose their children in the

first year of life partly or wholly as a result of ill-nourishment. Consider again from another angle the case of the young men on a low plane of health, who, through proper food and sufficient rest, were made fit enough to take their places in the Army.

This case is particularly interesting to-day when we are inquiring seriously into the stamina of our people. It was estimated, we learn, that the food these young men were given would have cost 17/6 per week each, if it had been purchased at the prevailing retail prices. We know that for every dozen of the young men thus benefited, there must be a thousand in similar states of health, who are being permitted to deteriorate in industry or in unemployment.

This booklet deserves a wide sale and will be especially appreciated by those who wish, in an hour's reading, to absorb many of the relevant facts upon which the campaign against malnutrition is based.

F. le G. Clarke

This document was submitted for publication by the Progressive Education Association, which is the U.S.A. Section of the New Education Fellowship.

For the Understanding and Defense of Democracy

THE following resolution was passed by the Board of Directors of the Progressive Education Association at its meeting in Detroit, Michigan, November 19, 1938 :

To all officers, advisers and members of the Progressive Education Association ;

To the international officers and directors of the New Education Fellowship, and to the officers and members of its more than fifty national sections around the world ;

To all groups and individuals in our own and other democratic countries ; and

To the oppressed people of Germany, Italy, Japan and many other countries, who, though now ruled by tyrants, still cherish democracy and are determined to fight for its establishment generally as humanity's finest way of life :

We, the Board of Directors of the Progressive Education Association, in regular meeting assembled, make this statement and present this call to united action.

With increasing violence, since the World War, our democratic way of life has been

attacked by an enemy of unexampled power and ruthlessness—Fascism. In structure and method of government, in ideals and philosophy, in deeds as well as in utterance, Fascism brands itself as a menace to our democratic civilization. To-day it has launched a worldwide offensive which penetrates the borders of every democratic country.

We feel, therefore, that it is incumbent upon us as elected representatives of democratic education to present a vigorous call for action on all possible fronts. We do so because we are convinced that the things we value most in life, the kind of education we sponsor, the kind of child and adult living enhanced by progressive education can flourish only in a democratic social order.

Because the real spearhead of Fascism resides in Hitler and the Nazi government of Germany we focus our indictment and our bill of particulars on the barbarous acts which they have committed during the last six years. In doing so we wish to make clear that much the same indictment can be drawn against the dictatorship

governments of Italy, Japan and other countries under the sway of Fascist ideas.

We wish it to be understood that we refer to the Nazi oligarchy, not to those German people who value as we do the dignity of the democratic way of life and would to-day give their lives if it were possible to overthrow, from within Germany, those who debauch it.

The present German government has, during a period of nearly six years, committed acts which brand it as a pariah among civilized people. Specifically it is established that :

It has indoctrinated children and young people with vicious propaganda and pseudo-science for nationalistic purposes ;

It has seized control of the family even to the extent of militarizing young children and turning them into spies against their parents ;

It has restricted the rôle of its women in ways which impoverish them and thereby deprive society of their unique cultural contributions ;

It has murdered, both secretly and publicly, numbers of German residents ;

It has kidnapped tens of thousands of others, imprisoning them in so-called Concentration Camps under unspeakable and barbaric conditions of disease and indecency ;

It has wantonly destroyed, looted, and confiscated without due process of law, the business, church and residential property of law-abiding German subjects ;

It has restricted, degraded, and exploited intelligence, closing schools to great sectors of its people, imprisoning and exiling distinguished men and women of science, letters and the arts whose achievements have been recognized and honoured throughout the world ;

It has interfered arrogantly with the internal concerns of peaceful neighbour nations creating artificial conflict among national minorities, preached fear and hatred in international relationships and bitterly resented the normal reactions of friendly neighbours who have criticized its inhuman actions toward its own racial and religious minorities.

This is the indictment. What can we as educators do ?

We can combat the impenetration of Fascism

into our own countries and can create an atmosphere in which it cannot survive in the world, by one means—the strengthening of democracy.

To this end we, as the elected representatives of our membership, affirm our determination to strengthen democracy in all our activities, and we call upon all to whom this statement is addressed :

To launch in their respective centres a searching study of the meaning and practice of democracy in their schools and communities ;

To make renewed efforts to guarantee in their schools and communities the democratic way of life ;

To make clear the actual status of democracy in government and social life in their respective communities and countries ;

To lead in opposing every sign and symptom of Fascism.

We urge upon our members, as citizens, direct participation in political action. Specifically we urge them now, individually and in co-operation with other citizens and groups, to communicate their approval to President Roosevelt of the President's condemnation of the acts of the German government and of his preliminary steps toward the alleviation of the plight of the unhappy Jewish people and other peoples of oppressed Germany.

Fascism is militant and aggressive. If democracy is not to be swept away before its onslaught, the democratic peoples of the earth must awake to their danger. They must devote themselves unswervingly to an intelligent understanding and improvement of democracy and to an undying defense of democratic institutions.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

THE whole question of civilian defence seems to arouse an unpleasant temper in most of us. We seem to expect the government to be not so much paternal as super-maternal in its attitude to the civilian population. But the government has chosen a more educative rôle than that of the broody hen. They seem to be urging us, through local government, to fend for ourselves as far as possible. We are apt to put this down to official laziness and irresponsibility, but it may be that the authorities see that our greater safety lies in our ability and willingness to plan our own hide-outs. This is not a very dictatorial attitude to their responsibilities, but it is, or should be, a workable means of securing the active and intelligent co-operation of a people who shuns totalitarianism.

In its measures for civilian defence, the government evidently assumes that, in time of war, the majority of civilians will remain where they are. It is said that the total population of the 'evacuable' areas in Great Britain is about 11,000,000. The government does not envisage evacuation on this scale, with its attendant problems of jobs undone in one part of the country and jobs unfindable in another. It presupposes that the ordinary civilian will go on doing his job, and that, for him, protection from bombing aircraft must be provided, either by steel-frame outer shells for his houses or by a series of catacombs. Those of us who cannot face life on these terms in time of war must examine and try to resolve our fears, for they are obviously a crippling handicap in the modern world.

But the government does recognize that there are certain 'priority classes' who must be

especially protected, either on humane grounds (the physically or mentally handicapped) or in the interests of the survival of the race (infants, children, and expectant and nursing mothers). And it is felt that for these classes, evacuation is essential—largely because their more delicate nervous balance should not be subjected to the strains of war. Special protection from the *physical* effects of an air raid would not meet the needs of these 'priority classes', who must therefore be removed as far as possible from sound and sight of modern warfare.

As announced to the press on January 6th, the Local Authorities have been requested by the Ministry of Health to make a full and rapid survey of the available billets in all the reasonably safe districts of England and Wales, to be completed not later than by the end of this month. The actual accommodation available, on the basis of one person per habitable room, is already fairly fully known, thanks to the returns made in the recent investigation into over-crowding. But a new house-to-house investigation is to be made to determine how much suitable accommodation is available for evacuated children—one of the tests of suitability, apart from the general orderliness of the home, being that the householder should be *willing* to open his home to evacuated children, should the need arise.¹

¹ Householders providing homes for such children will be paid by the Government at the rate of 10/6 a week where one child is taken and 8/6 where more than one child is taken. Children under school age accompanied by a responsible adult will require lodgings only for a payment of 5/- a week for each adult and 3/- a week for each child. In cases of necessity, funds for maintenance will be available at the local Labour Exchange. Arrangements for the supply of mattresses and bedding will be made by the Ministry of Health.

It is being made clear that they are under no compulsion to do this, though those who do not wish to accommodate children are to be warned that they may be required to take other persons.

Until the returns from this investigation have been analysed, I gather that the Ministry of Health does not feel inclined to recommend any wholesale construction of camps for the evacuated children, though an assessment of existing camps, empty houses, etc., is to be included in the billeting survey, and suitable sites for new camps are being listed at the same time. They evidently hope that, in time of crisis, a sufficient number of homes will be opened to the evacuated children, both because of a natural warmheartedness and because the safeguarding of so much young life will be seen as an obvious human duty. Should the available accommodation prove inadequate, then the construction of camps will be immediately embarked upon, in spite of its obvious drawbacks: cost of construction (not less than £50 per head), the withdrawal of labour and material from other works of national importance, and, from the child's point of view, the difficulty of maintaining health services and controlling epidemics, the obvious target presented to hostile aircraft, and the psychological drawbacks of acute anxieties about the old home, unabated by the warmth of a new one. Since such anxieties are likely to be least acute among the 9- to 12-year-olds, these would seem to be the most suitable years for camp life should the need arise.

It has already been laid down that pre-school children will not be evacuated without a parent or guardian, though this will probably be modified (if the parents wish) in the case of nursery schools, and certainly in the case of special schools for physically or mentally defective children. Such schools are already more generously staffed than the schools for the older children, and probably with suitable quarters and additional trained helpers they could most usefully be kept together as school units.

The other schools will be evacuated as units and the Board of Education is busy upon plans for their continued education once they are safely in their billets. It is probable, once the

billeting survey is complete and the evacuation plans made, that evacuating schools will be paired off with schools of similar type in their new districts, and that the head teachers will meet and devise plans—probably running the schools in two sessions, the local children in the mornings and the visitors in the afternoons, unless accommodation suitable for school premises can be found locally.

It is obvious that there will be a vast need for social service for the evacuated children, skilled care for the pre-school and infant school children and recreational clubs, boot and shoe and clothing clubs, the organization of communal kitchens and laundries, and so on for the older ones. We are delighted to find that a loophole has been made for the inclusion of such activities in Sir John Anderson's National Register. Volunteers for such work will need careful training both in the theory and practice of child care. If such training can be wisely organized, this should ensure an increased awareness of the needs of children throughout the whole country, and a much needed influx of *trained* helpers to infant welfare centres and nursery schools in times of peace.

APART from the Board of Education and the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Food and the Ministry of Transport are engaged on the problems of evacuation. The former is planning to make available increased supplies of food to the shopkeepers in areas to which evacuated children are sent.

The Ministry of Transport has the most acute, though the shortest-lived, responsibility. I understand that certain of their September emergency plans have been revised in important particulars; for example, they now hope to evacuate from the mainline railway stations, with the carefully worked out provision of transport from the schools to such stations, where such is necessary (cf. the L.C.C.'s proposals, pp. 31-32). They also now propose to carry the evacuation into remoter areas than were thought possible in September. Rolling stock seems to be adequate, and train crews, though a more difficult problem, will be forthcoming. 'Priority classes' will have absolute priority on the railways, such priority being enforced, should evacuation be decided

upon. Fears have been expressed about the safety of the children in transit. But the L.C.C. found that, out of the 70,000 and 35,000 schoolchildren whom they took to watch the Jubilee and Coronation processions respectively, only a very small number required Red Cross treatment of any kind, though accommodation had been prepared for 3,000 cases. (Only one child required an ambulance on each occasion, a girl with incipient appendix pains and a boy who developed mumps nine days later !) The Red Cross discovered, what

New Era readers do not need to be told, that children are very much more sensible than they are generally expected to be, when they feel that the occasion demands good sense.

We make no apology for the matter and manner of this number of the magazine. The protection of children in time of war must obviously be planned scientifically, lovingly and in the fullest detail. Our hope that such plans can then be pigeon-holed does not absolve us from the duty of making them.

The London County Council and the Evacuation of School Children

BELOW is a summary of the London County Council's instructions about the evacuation of school children issued to all their Head Teachers and staffs on September 23rd, 1938. The Council had been at work for some months on the problem of how best to safeguard the school children in their charge in the event of an outbreak of war. On May 10th it had been decided that in an emergency the schools should be closed, at any rate for a time, and that the question of reopening them should be reconsidered when the nature and implications of the emergency should have become apparent. On June 2nd the Council's officers presented a written memorandum to Sir John Anderson's Parliamentary Committee on evacuation.

The scheme which follows was not therefore entirely an eleventh-hour improvization. We do not know how it would have worked, whether the 20,000 teachers and 500,000 children would have reached their destinations uncrushed either by each other or by external forces, and what warmth and food and shelter would have met them at their journey's end. (The billeting arrangements in the districts to which the children were to be evacuated were entrusted by the Home Office to the authorities of those areas, and were in no sense the responsibility of the Council.) What we do see at a glance is the almost overwhelming responsibility imposed upon every individual teacher by the scheme ; and the Council's

and the parents' faith that the teachers were fit for such responsibility. Such faith is a challenge to teachers to attempt the impossible. But we must now see to it that they shall not be asked to attempt the impossible. Every detail of schemes both for evacuation (with its attendant problems of housing and food supply), and for air-raid shelters at home must be worked out. Every provision must be made for the physical and mental well-being of the children. Judging by the number of people who have refused to contribute to this number of the *New Era*, the subject is an unpopular one. Yet surely, whatever hopes we may have that a general war may be avoided, and whatever means we may advocate for its avoidance, our plain duty is to ensure that the millions of children living in exposed and congested areas should be protected by every means in our power from the weapons of modern warfare.

Short range emergency scheme for evacuation of the Child population of school age whose parents consent to their evacuation separately in school units

Transport Position

The Government worked out with the L.P.T.B. and the representatives of the main line railways a train service which could have removed over two million people from London at short notice. To encompass this, however,

it would have been necessary to abandon any idea of running long distance trains, *e.g.* to Devon, Cornwall, and Wales. All the available rolling stock would have been needed to run 'shuttle' services to a large number of railheads distributed over the 'safe parts' of the counties of Kent, Sussex, Surrey, Hampshire, Berkshire, Wiltshire, Oxfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, Hertfordshire, Essex, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire, Huntingdon, Northamptonshire, and Peterborough.

A wireless broadcast and press notice would have told everyone who could be spared and could get away to go to their nearest underground station taking hand luggage and provisions if possible for two days. A special statement would have given directions to parents who wished their children to go in school parties with their teachers. The Underground running at maximum capacity outwards would have delivered these refugees to stations on the perimeter of London, *e.g.* Ealing, Wimbledon, etc. Here a change would have been made on to main-line trains running a 'shuttle' service to railheads distributed over the home counties. The main line railways and 'buses would have been used where there are no Underground stations within reasonable distance.

Time permitting, instructions would have been sent separately to every school telling them what station to make for and at what time they should do so. If action had had to be taken before such instructions were received heads would have had to use their discretion, *e.g.* as to starting for or sending a messenger to the station.

Assembly at School

Children to be evacuated were to be instructed to assemble at school with (a) hand luggage, (b) mackintosh or coat, (c) blanket if possible, (d) one day's food. As soon as possible after arrival all children would have had affixed to them a strong label containing the following particulars: (i) full name in block letters, (ii) home address, (iii) Council's number of the school at which the child assembles (a number was being allotted to all schools not numbered). The number of children in the party was to be carefully noted

before departure and supplied on application to the transport authorities. Parties (if any) which got separated from their main body were instructed to report the facts with their school number at the railhead. They were told on no account to stop but to proceed at the instruction of the transport staff. Arrangements would have been made to reunite parties so separated in the first few days after arrival at railhead.

Teachers and all adults accompanying parties were instructed to make for themselves a white cloth armlet 5 inches wide bearing in bold red letters L.C.C. and in black the school number. This was to serve as a pass and the police and transport authorities were asked to give passage to everyone wearing it, and to assist them to reach their schools and during evacuation. Heads were to wear one on each arm. The Government hoped that teachers would be able to enrol able-bodied adult friends, relations, or parents to assist them in taking the children. Not more than one adult to ten children including teachers was to be allowed.

Getting to Stations

The Government and transport authorities promised that police protection would be forthcoming to enable school parties to secure some measure of priority in obtaining access to stations and trains. Admission to platforms would have been controlled to prevent overcrowding and danger. Accommodation on trains would have been reserved for school parties. Instructions were given for the safeguarding of the children *en route*.

On Thursday, September 22nd, the Home Office informed the L.C.C. that the Government could not agree to priority, *i.e.* that a separate day should be given for the evacuation of school children. Agreement to accord such priority was finally secured on Monday, the 26th.

Arrival at Railheads

On arrival at railheads, teachers and adults accompanying children were requested to place themselves under the direction of the Government billeting staff. They were on no account to attempt to find billets on their own responsibility. The billeting fees payable

by the Government were to have been (i) To foster parents receiving and boarding children in school parties, 10s. 6d. a week for one child ; and 8s. 6d. per child for two or more. (ii) To householders finding accommodation only—for adults 5s. a week each, for children not in school parties, 3s. a week each.

Heads of all schools were instructed to inform (a) the railhead authorities of the number of their school and number in party, (b) the schoolkeeper of their own school of their location (by telegram).

General

Schoolkeepers were instructed to post notices at the school gates to inform parents of the whereabouts of the school. Parents wishing to communicate with their children were to write to them *via* the Head Teacher of the school at — railhead. The number of the school

was to appear on the envelope. The school-keeper was, therefore, told to give that number on the notice. Teachers were reassured that their co-operation in the whole scheme was invited on a purely voluntary basis. Teachers unable to go were advised to notify (a) the Education Officer, (b) the Divisional Officer (through their head teacher).

If the children had had their gas masks distributed to them they were to carry the masks ; if not they were not to delay since distribution would have been arranged at railheads. All schools were advised to arrange to hold a parents' meeting, using the above information. As will be seen from subsequent articles, 80 per cent. of all parents agreed to entrust their children to the school organization, and so the stage seemed set for the greatest task that teachers of this country have ever been asked to undertake.

Comments on the L.C.C. Emergency Evacuation Scheme

I

A London Headmaster

THE proposals of the London County Council for the evacuation of the school population of London have been, from the moment of their inception, subject to a good deal of criticism. It was recognized that the scheme was an emergency one, and, in spite of numerous difficulties, it would probably have been carried out more or less successfully.

I do not propose to discuss the details of that scheme, neither do I wish to enlarge upon the immense difficulties that awaited head teachers and their staffs ; nor upon the wonderful response of the parents at parents' meetings and afterwards. I desire to concentrate upon a criticism of evacuation as the best solution, and to put forward alternative suggestions for the preservation of child life and of the morale of the civil population. In so doing I am not criticizing the L.C.C.'s emergency scheme, but rather the Government's A.R.P. policy in its relation to the child population.

In the first place the Government, believing that gas was the main danger, and in spite of

the repeated assertions of our leading scientists that no gas mask has yet been constructed that would prove effective against gas, concentrated upon the supply of gas masks. The proposal that ample underground shelters should be constructed was pooh-poohed for months. Then came the 'crisis'—and a few totally inadequate trenches were dug in parks and playing fields.

Conditions in Barcelona are worth detailed study. At first the population was advised to paste up their windows against gas, or go into cellars for shelter. The death roll from each air raid ran into hundreds. Then the authorities constructed strong underground shelters for all. An eye-witness, Mr. Cyril Helsby, informed the Institution of Civil Engineers that a total of 455 bombs were dropped during six days last December, and the total number of deaths was two ! This means that a civilian population can be given reasonable defence against air attack, and at the same time be able to carry on its normal occupations.

The Holborn Borough Council has approved in principle a scheme for the construction of

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BEDFORD STREET, STRAND, W.C.2

an air raid shelter with accommodation for 75,000 people beneath the gardens of Russell Square, W.C. This shelter in peace time would be used as a car park for nearly one thousand cars. Thirty-five feet below the ground it would have a five feet thick roof of concrete and reinforced felt. Contained in the shelter would be a fully-equipped first-aid post, an air-conditioning plant, and an electricity plant. Other boroughs are considering similar plans for the construction of permanent shelters, proof against bombs, splinters, blast, shock and falling buildings, gas and shrapnel. On such a comprehensive programme, Professor Haldane says every unemployed miner in the country could be given work for two years in London alone. In addition London's main-line railway stations should be made bomb-proof, for Paddington Station alone could shelter 3,500 people.

If such schemes were put in hand at once it would still be necessary to have an emergency scheme for evacuation. Any such scheme should avoid using the counties of Essex, Kent, Surrey, and Sussex, and should be to places not less than 50, preferably over 80, miles from London. Generally speaking, the evacuated population should not be billeted in the homes of the rural population, but in specially-constructed encampments made reasonably bomb-proof; and certainly they should not be sent to boarding-schools and such-like buildings which had already been evacuated as unsafe for the normal inhabitants. Transport should be from school to destination, and full provision should be made for all refugees, adult as well as children. In November the Council of the London Head Teachers' Association passed the following resolution, and sent it forward for discussion at the Whitsuntide Conference of the National Association of Head Teachers to be held at Harrogate :

"This Association, whilst recognizing the limited amount of time at the disposal of the Government and of local authorities for the preparation of emergency measures for the evacuation of school children, and of the civil population generally, from towns considered to be particularly vulnerable to enemy attack last

October, nevertheless desires to draw the authorities' attention to the inadequacy of those emergency measures from the point of view of the children and their parents, of the rural population, and of the staffs of the affected schools. Further, this Association, being of the opinion that the billeting of civilian refugees in the private homes of the rural population is the least effective measure for the preservation of life and of public morale, presses the authorities to give careful consideration to alternative methods such as the construction of effective underground shelters and the provision of adequate accommodation in suitable districts for those necessarily evacuated'.

II

Headmaster of a Senior Boys' School

In reviewing at this time the 'Short Range Emergency Scheme for the Evacuation of the Child Population of school age in School Units' it is possible to assess to some extent the value of the work done under such hurried circumstances, and also to note its probable shortcomings if it had been put to the test.

The meetings of parents called by the head teachers at the request of the Local Authority were one of the most heartening features of the preliminaries to the scheme. Although the scheme was issued on the 23rd of September, as is stated elsewhere in the *New Era*, most of the meetings could not be held until the Monday of the following week. During the week-end parents, as well as other members of the community, were much concerned regarding the safety or otherwise of the children and themselves, and there is no doubt that the meetings had a steadying effect upon the parents. The attendances at the meetings showed the necessity for some means of convincing the parents that action was being taken to safeguard the lives of their children, and the willingness of the parents to entrust their children to the care of the teachers, in spite of the possible uncertainty of billets for all on arrival at their destination, was a measure of the confidence placed in the local authority and the teachers.

The success of the rapid and complete

evacuation of the children depended largely upon the ability of the railways to transport the children according to schedule, and also upon the arrangements made at the rail heads for the speedy and orderly removal of the children to billets whether in private houses or in halls. As it was understood that the first call on the railways would be to evacuate the school children, it was hoped that the children would be carried to the outskirts of the city expeditiously.

Transport for the younger children was necessary from the school to the station of entrainment, and here there was uncertainty in the minds of the members of the school staff as to whether such transport would be forthcoming when the time arrived for getting to the station. In such cases it would have been necessary for the scholars of the Senior School department to come to the rescue of the little ones and assist in getting them to the station. The rate of movement in such a case would be that of the smallest child. In this connection it must not be forgotten that the Senior children had their luggage to transport, and this applies also to the Infant children. In any long range scheme for evacuation, these matters demand careful consideration.

The arrangements made for the billeting of children were not definitely stated, so it is not possible to express an opinion on that very

important branch of the evacuation scheme. At the time of the proposed evacuation, the idea of getting the children away from London and its probable dangers was uppermost in the minds of all engaged in the work, but the question of billets is one to be seriously considered. This branch of the plan is one requiring the earnest attention of those preparing the long range scheme, and here, I feel the greatest difficulties will arise. These difficulties will be increased, rather than diminished, by the presence of parents, and the departure from the absolute system of school units is one requiring deep and careful consideration. The presence of parents among the younger children, the limit of age of girls accompanying senior boys, the additional helpers required for the Infant school children, are some of the points to which attention may be directed in a long-range scheme.

Some Senior boys were keen on staying behind, hoping to be of service in A.R.P. work, while others were anxious for the safety of parents while they, the school children, were being evacuated.

As a citizen interested in the safety of all, I hope the possibility of underground shelters will be fully explored. I am not referring to trenches dug in open spaces, but underground places which could be used in peace time for parking of cars and in other useful ways.

First draft of a Provincial Evacuation Plan¹

1. While the national emergency is past, and may not recur in our time, the shadow of the few days of uncertainty and peril require that thought should be taken to prepare plans against a similar peril should it come upon us.

2. The gravest difficulties surround any proposals for the evacuation of school children from their homes, and in a crisis the clearest of plans may become almost impossible to carry out. The following suggestions are set

down therefore for the Education Committee to consider, and if approved should form the basis of instructions for schools.

(Here follows a detailed list of areas from which schools would have to be evacuated.)

3. There are two stages of work to be considered. So soon as a state of tension or emergency arises—and this will be indicated in a communication from the Education Office—the following measures should be taken :

(a) Teachers must call a meeting of parents and thereat warn them of the emergency.

¹ These proposals are interesting as showing how the problems of evacuation are being faced in a county which, though largely rural, has very densely populated industrial areas. They were drawn up for the consideration of the County Education Committee.

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(b) Ask them—

(i) to make voluntary arrangements themselves to send their children out into the country or to other safe places to the care of friends and relatives. This should be called Plan A ;

(ii) At this meeting also obtain from parents who cannot make their own arrangements a written agreement to allow their children to be sent away under the charge of teachers to such safe places as the Education Committee and the Air Raid Precautions Authorities will arrange. This should be called Plan B.

(c) Send immediately to the Education Office an estimate of the numbers of pupils involved in arrangements under paragraph 3 (b) (i) and (ii) above.

4. In making arrangements for Plan A teachers must—

Tie on to each child's clothing a stout envelope containing a card on which the following information is legibly written

The child's home address ; and its class or standard at school.

Any salient medical note which is deemed to be of importance.

Whether the child is on the Free Milk or Dinner List.

The name and address of the person to whom the child is sent.

A copy of the data must be entered in a Special Register, called the Evacuation Register, to be kept in the School. Entries must be made under the headings Plan A and Plan B.

All pupils so voluntarily transferred must be told to report to the nearest school and should hand over the card to the teacher there. The names of these children will be entered in a Special Register no matter to what class they are allocated.

5. In making arrangements for Plan B teachers are requested to note, and make necessary provision for—

(a) The number of children whose parents are agreeable to evacuation must be ascertained and the numbers sent at once to the Education Office. Parents must be warned that the Committee will not, in any

circumstances, allow children to return home except as a complete party.

(b) The Education Committee will then arrange for transport with the Chief Transport Officer and schools will be notified of the approximate times when the transport may be expected. On receipt of this information pupils will assemble and will wait at the school—however long—for transport to arrive.

(c) Children on assembly at school will bring with them a change of underclothing, an overcoat, a blanket, shoes, a supply of food. The clothes, shoes and food should be carried in a handbag or small sack. Each child will be given an identity card as in Plan A.

(d) Teachers will inspect each child's kit and will divide the evacuation party into groups of about 20 to 25 in charge of a teacher. The teacher will have a list of the pupils in his or her care with their home addresses. Each teacher should carry a small First-aid outfit.

(e) The Education Committee will notify the Food Control Officer of the number of children being evacuated and their destinations. It is, however, essential that the evacuation party shall carry with it food for two days, and teachers must see that it is not consumed at once, but rationed for the two days. The Council will issue to each school from which evacuation parties will leave, details as to destination, entraining and detraining points.

6. On arrival at the destination teachers must endeavour to make the best of conditions which they find. It will not be possible to rely on the Education Committee except in dire necessity. Teachers should endeavour to arrange locally for—

- (1) Fuel supply and light.
- (2) Food (subject to the arrangements of Food Control Officer).
- (3) Taking care of crops, if any, in the School Gardens.
- (4) Washing clothes.
- (5) Continuing the instruction of pupils in the daytime.
- (6) Ensuring a high standard of discipline in all circumstances.

The recommendations of the Education Committee contained in the Air Raid Precautions Memorandum will operate in so far as they are possible and applicable.

7. The Education Committee in conjunction with the A.R.P. Committee should consider *now* the establishment of Camps generally in the District, for emergency evacuation of children in addition to the suggested evacuation to country schools suggested above. There can be no doubt as to the wisdom of this or of the need for more accommodation than school buildings can afford.

If such camps are built they would, of course, be solely for county children, and it must be remembered that there will be evacuation from large industrial centres into the county, no doubt causing a very heavy strain upon such accommodation as now exists. There is also the question of priority of claim for existing buildings.

8. It is suggested that the Education Committee should acquire the necessary sites without delay near railroads and highways where there are reasonable water and power facilities and in areas which might be considered fairly safe. The sites need careful choosing from the point of view of screening—so far as is possible—from aircraft observation. Each site should be from 10-20 acres. The Camp ensemble should include—

- (1) Hutments with sleeping berths in tiers.
- (2) Lavatory sheds.
- (3) Cookhouses.
- (4) Quarters for service staff. Teachers' sleeping quarters should be in the hutments.
- (5) Administrative office and food stores.
- (6) Small hospital, rather apart from the main hutments and so planned that reception wards, for war casualties which might be evacuated there, could be added at short notice.
- (7) Telephone exchange should be installed.

All equipment would be as simple as possible.

It is clear that the enterprise is on a considerable scale, and it is a matter for serious discussion whether the Committee should adopt one or other of the lines of progress suggested below :

- (1) Approve of the scheme in principle and acquire sites.
- (2) Acquire sites and lay out drainage schemes and provide for water and power to be laid on to the site.
- (3) Or go through with the complete scheme.

If the last is the decision then the Education Committee could use the premises for a thorough-going scheme of Summer Camps which would be of enormous benefit to the children of the County and also provide full opportunities of testing the evacuation scheme and arrangements.

9. The cost of the scheme would be considerable, but if evacuation is to be a national policy, the cost must be faced. It would be unfair to place the cost upon the Education Committee's budget, and it is suggested that the whole matter be placed before the Air Raid Precautions Committee of the Council with a view to securing the approval of the Ministry of Health.

It is understood, after a brief conference with the County Medical Officer, and an officer of the Ministry of Health, that if the scheme included the small hospital so planned as to permit of extension, the Ministry might consider joining the scheme.

A conference of all concerned, *i.e.* Education Committee, the A.R.P. Committee, Officers of the Ministries of Education and Health, and the Home Office would be a necessary and desirable step. Such a conference should include also—though perhaps at a later stage—the local officers of the Food Control Board. Some contact of this kind has been made, and it is clear that local arrangements (not at

present contemplated) would have to be made for the creation of food depots in the areas to which evacuated children will go.

10. This scheme should be circulated to schools, if it is approved. Teachers should hold the meeting of parents suggested in para. 4 (a) at which the proposals should be explained fully. Parents should be asked to give such replies as would enable the teachers to tell the Education Committee *now* what numbers were to be expected to be dealt with under Plan A and Plan B.

The Education Office could then make preliminary arrangements with the Transport Office and the Food Control Office as would facilitate the operation of the schemes should an emergency arise at any time.

11. *Transport.* Road transport is not thought feasible and it is suggested that, for almost all the children from areas of the east of the county, all movement should be by rail.

The main concern all through the arrangements proposed have been—

- (1) To avoid the use of road transport.
- (2) To avoid bringing any pupils through the county town. Thus, if the proposals are adopted no pupils in a County School would enter or pass through the City or its main stations.

Arrangements would need to be worked out in consultation with the Railway Authorities and the Controller of Transport.

(The report ends with a series of appendices, showing the number of children likely to be evacuated from each area; the numbers likely to be accommodated in 'safe' areas, which are listed in detail; forms for the parents' consent to Plan B, etc., etc.)

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Evacuation of Nursery School Children

C. Yorath

Headmistress of Old Church Road
Nursery School, London

THE very word 'evacuation' recalls, to all in London who had charge of children, memories of stress and strain, of mothers with tear-stained faces bravely parting with their children to send them to a safety zone.

We in the Nursery Schools were especially surprised at the overwhelming confidence placed in us, when 90 per cent. of the parents wished us to have charge of their children. The officials of the L.C.C. evacuation scheme were equally surprised. They, like us, did not realize that so many would be willing to part with their 'babies'. The confidence the parents had in us made us determined not to betray their trust. On Wednesday, September 29th, every child has his 'bundle' of clothing in school. What pathetic sights some of these bundles were, what tales of poverty they disclosed. Many had no blankets and night attire is evidently a luxury unknown in many homes of the poor. Changes of clothing were scanty and inadequate. Several mothers had washed out the changes overnight and warned us they would be damp. Provision was made in school to air them. The shoes were in many cases poor, the needs of the older members of the families having been more urgent. In many cases mothers who were paying as much as 16s. a week for rent had had to provide five or seven pairs of shoes and blankets out of unemployment benefit. Every effort had been made to send the children as clean and well equipped as possible. Afterwards many were burdened with debts for many weeks.

On Wednesday afternoon the Education Authorities gave orders for the Nursery School children to be evacuated the next day. Thanks to many friends, known and unknown, and to the London Co-operative Society, we had the promise of sufficient private cars and coaches for transport.

The following morning 185 children arrived at my school at 8 a.m. ; 25 new two-year-olds were left behind, with a promise that we would fetch them the next day if the news became more grave. Our destination was to be Aylesbury. The children thoroughly enjoyed the good breakfast provided and were looking forward to a country holiday. (Some had been for two country holidays from school. In our school, as in most London Nursery Schools, country holidays are part of the school life.) The mothers behaved splendidly and immediately returned to their homes, which helped us to get the children away without any scenes. It took us an hour and a quarter to get all away. The smallest children went into cars, four with one adult, the older ones into the coaches. Students from St. Gabriel's and the Institute of Education gave us invaluable help. The little ones proudly carried their parcels into the cars, and felt very important.

The journey was a happy one and between 12.30 p.m. and 1 p.m. we arrived at Aylesbury. Waltow Parish Hall had been placed at our disposal, milk was supplied, and we prepared a hasty meal. The little ones were tired and some went to sleep on blankets laid on the floor. The A.R.P. were finding billets for us. The wire announcing our arrival had been delayed and was not received until 11 a.m. Soon Buck Street and the Jellicoe Nursery School children arrived at Aylesbury, making a total of 250 children of from 2 to 5 years of age.

At 2 o'clock coaches took us to the estate green to be billeted. From there children were taken in ones and twos to various houses. At 5 p.m., when we thought three-quarters of them were safely in homes, we realized that many had been returned to us unwanted. The reasons given for their return were various.

Some wanted school children, 'we do not want babies', others boys, not girls, or *vice versa*. Some were refused because they cried. Some because of their mischievous ways, others because they were poor and unattractive.

At 8.30 p.m. we still had six of the most unattractive children left. Homes were found for these, and we went to seek for billets for ourselves, feeling glad that all the children were safe in houses, although we were not at all sure of their addresses. The next morning we traced the unknown addresses. The children had been carried off by foster parents who had taken a fancy to them. Many billets had to be changed for various reasons. Two little boys and two little girls were standing with their parcels outside two homes at 9 o'clock. They had been too mischievous. All four had been running in and out of all the rooms in the houses. At home they were children of five and seven in families and lived in two rooms! Some were refused because of homesickness. Several children had three different homes in five days. Just imagine how upsetting this must have been to such small children.

Clothing was a problem, it was so meagre and scanty. The Mayor brought us some supplies. Every day brought new problems of renewal of clothing and shoes. Also there were childish ailments to be coped with.

Every day the Staff visited every foster mother and noted her requirements. Some were nervous of anything happening to children in their charge, and as coughs, colds, and sore throats were prevalent much advice and attention were needed. Sometimes a single visit would last for a whole hour. Foster mothers who went to work left children in our charge. Sometimes they had to go out in the night and needed someone to look after the house when the children were in bed. We had just a wooden hut for organizing our work, very poor accommodation for looking after small children during the day time.

The Clinic, with a very sympathetic nurse, was placed at our disposal, but the Clinic was closed on Saturday and Sunday. It was three-quarters of a mile away from the billeting area and transport for this was provided by kind folk of the town. Several children

suffering from severe coughs were sent home by private cars, four with skin rashes were placed in a private ward of a hospital. The kindness of the people of Aylesbury and of the foster mothers was amazing, and many of the children were so happy that they wished to remain there.

The staff of all schools worked excellently; teaching and domestic staff readily gave their services, and no one grumbled before or after. It should be stressed that we could not have continued our work under such a strain without better accommodation. Our sincere appreciation was given to those who offered us accommodation at a minute's notice, but the Home Office must realize that such strenuous and responsible work requires decent staffing quarters. An adequate billeting allowance should be guaranteed. Five shillings only was allowed for each adult. This meant lodgings on the billeting estate and 'living in' with families. Most of the staff shared bedrooms. Meals were partaken with the family, and as most of the homes only contained a combined living and dining room, this meant no privacy.

Schooling was not thought of and we only saw the children when visits were made and when the older ones went to the Mayor's tea party. No committee room was available, and this made organization of the work very difficult. The Government allowed 10s. for one child, 8s. 6d. for two or more per week. The suitable menus for young children were not always provided and the majority of the children did not have a pint of milk per day. Foster parents frequently over-indulged the children with sweets and very late hours. One small child of 2½ years was one day having pickles and cheese for dinner. The parents had no children of their own, so the meal was given in ignorance as to the needs of the child.

The highest tribute should be paid to the L.C.C. for all their courteous sympathy and co-operation. Their help was always available, and the individual problems of the school always realized. The L.C.C. was the only Authority in the country with a concrete evacuation scheme. The officer who was responsible for the evacuation plans has now been transferred to Whitehall to help with the Government's evacuation plans. We as

teachers are delighted to hear this, for we may now rest assured that every care will be taken to see that such blunders as occurred in the last crisis will not, if ever there is another, occur again. One Education Officer who arranged the transport for 123 special and Nursery Schools in two days has been especially thanked by the Nursery School Association and all Nursery School Superintendents.

Our warmest thanks and appreciation are sent to those who lent us cars, many of whom did not give us their addresses, and to the mothers for the trust they had in us.

We learnt many lessons from our experiences which should be useful if ever young children have to be evacuated at a future date.

I am convinced that had the young children from London schools, especially those from Nursery Schools, arrived at the same time as the bigger children, the latter would have had preference. Mothers of families would find that young children need far too much care and attention in a time of crisis. There is an urgent need for emergency plans to be made for all children in Nursery Schools and classes—those under 5 years of age.

In drawing up these plans I would urge that the following points be considered :

Identity discs should be provided, and these should be securely fastened around each child's neck. On one side should be printed :

(a) Child's name in block capitals, (b) Date of birth, (c) Home address, (d) Christian name of parents. On the other side space should be left for the name and address of foster parents. During the recent evacuation labels proved to be of no use, as children tore them off.

Emergency clothing and blankets should be provided. Every billet should be inspected and passed beforehand by the Borough M.O.H. through Health Visitors. No overcrowding should be allowed. Children should not sleep three in one bed. Each child should be provided with one pint of milk daily. In order to do this it may be necessary to reduce allowance for billets, but it is an important point and should not be overlooked. During the recent evacuation it was discovered that many families used mostly tinned milk, children did not receive their daily pint and usually drank tea. Certain hygienic rules should be enforced. Each child should be bathed or washed separately and in clean water.

A list should be kept of suitable foster mothers for children between 2 and 7 years of age. These are tender years, and the children's needs exacting. Recently in some cases 2- and 3-year-olds were billeted with persons over 60 years of age.

When Nursery Schools or Infants Schools are billeted far apart, the school, as a unit, is lost. Billets should be situated so that the children could conveniently attend school in a temporary building or in empty houses which could be temporarily converted. Clinical treatment should be available every week-day. If the clinic is any distance away from billets transport should be provided.

Definite arrangements should be made with parents through the L.E.As. and D.Os. for clothing and shoes to be replenished at regular intervals. Suitable menus should be provided according to the age of children. Children should be put to bed at the proper time.

Volunteers for the Care of Children in time of war

F. Hawtrey

THE last war saw the rise of various voluntary aid detachments of women : large voluntary organizations were used to supplement trained workers in hospitals and canteens. It is certain that in a future war, where the attack would be directed against civilians as well as soldiers, there would be a

Of Ivory Hill and the Foundling Site
great demand for women qualified to safeguard little children under difficult conditions and to undertake their care.

We know that admirable arrangements were made by the L.C.C. for the evacuation of school children last September, but transport to safety is no more than an initial stage and

the further problems of reception and accommodation have to be dealt with. Moreover there are many thousands of children under school age not attending any kind of baby-class or nursery. It has now become clear that parents will desire these to be moved to a place of safety and will be prepared to part from them if this can be assured. (The Honorary Secretary of the Women's Institutes in *Home and Country* for November states that within two days 7000 applications were received for the removal of these tiny children.) It is for these children that most help will be needed, but even under the best conditions extra workers are necessary if children removed from their homes are to be safe, happy and well cared for.

Where children are kept in units, the existing staff from Day Nursery or Nursery School will need assistance, for resident life more than doubles working hours. Where children are billeted in families extra help is equally desirable. Many people were appalled at the idea of having children billeted on them, not because they were grudging in spirit but because they felt incapable of giving children proper care, either from lack of experience or physical energy or because of other claims upon their time—one or two reliable helpers would relieve the situation.

The Types of Volunteers

Many girls and women who might not be specially suited for other branches of national service would be able to do very useful work for children. For example, girls aged 16 to 19 are too young for hospital work or motor-driving. An increasing number of girls from schools and colleges volunteer to help with children during the holidays as at the Toddlers Play Centre and the Foundling Site, which have been staffed in this way for the last ten summers. Many older women who have brought up families of their own would best use their experience in this work and would be able to shoulder more responsibility.

The unsuitable volunteer would have to be guarded against; for, unless training and a test were instituted, child-care might become merely a way of escaping from the danger zone.

Training

A 'helper' should not be able to enrol for child-care without further preparation merely because she thinks that she likes children or even because she has had experience with them. The child-lover may be very unpractical, and a mother's methods are sometimes very arbitrary. Volunteers should be required to attend short courses in child hygiene, child management and first-aid. Separate courses should be provided for young girls and older women.

The more important part of the preparation, particularly for girls, would be the practical experience with children. This could be gained at Infant Welfare Centres, Play Centres and Nursery Classes, or Holiday Homes. A simple test would be set and a certificate for child-care (as for First-aid) awarded on the result.

Field Instructors

If this training is to be provided for Volunteers all over the country, it is clear that a band of Field-Instructors will be required. Short courses in child-care should be provided at chosen centres so that women with experience in kindred subjects can complete their equipment for this special work—Infant Teachers, Domestic Science Teachers, Day Nursery Matrons, Health Visitors, Mothers would need to supplement their knowledge in various ways.

It should be noted that short courses of three months are already recognized by the Board of Education, and teachers receive salary while attending these. Vacation Courses might also be arranged.

Preparation through Holiday Centres

Helpers may accompany the children from their home districts or be drawn from residents in a reception area, or may be allotted from outside. The opening of small holiday centres for young children would be an interesting development. The Children's Country Holiday Fund only arranges holidays for children who have left the Infant School—at present there are very few holiday homes for children under seven. The provision of holidays for successive groups of little children would give opportunity for excellent practical experience

for 'helpers'—the interest of the neighbourhood could be enlisted and a good deal of the advance preparation of quarters, furniture, play material, etc., could be made by local enthusiasts. Contact could be established with the children's home districts; the centre would form a nucleus which could be expanded in time of war. In time of peace it would provide a number of little children with a health-giving change.

Conclusion

Whatever scheme of evacuation is adopted for school children and pre-school children it is certain that it cannot be carried through

effectively without an extensive network of voluntary helpers. An organization which provided for this would be far-reaching and would have a steadying effect: the knowledge that there was a body of trained and reliable helpers available would inspire confidence in the mothers who must face parting with their children to strangers. It would be a means for using the goodwill and sympathy of many women who might otherwise have no satisfactory outlet for their energies and would thus be left a prey to alarms.

It is a matter of urgency that child-care be included among the recognized forms of national service for which volunteers are shortly to be invited.

Air Raid Precautions for Schools¹

Gordon Barry

Secretary of the National Association of Head Teachers

WHAT is to happen to school education in the event of war is a matter on which both the Government and Local Education Authorities seem to be quite undecided. Members of Education Committees are perplexed to know what it is they can expect in modern aerial bombardment and therefore what steps they must devise to cope with this comparatively unknown threat.

Some Authorities have decided that immediately on the outbreak of hostilities, to use the term 'declaration of war' is to be out of date in these days of civilized terrorism, the schools will be closed. Presumably that means for the duration of the war or of the emergency, whichever is the longer. Such action can hardly be characterized as steps taken by the L.E.A.'s for the safeguarding of the interests of the children. It is rather shifting the burden of the responsibility for the safety of the children on to shoulders less able to bear that burden, namely, the parents.

The reason for their inability to shoulder this burden are twofold. The houses they inhabit are usually far more vulnerable than the schools themselves and much less likely to afford any protection. The parents of many

of the children in the state schools will be away from home at their daily work and not able to give personal supervision to their protection.

Some Authorities, however, have not gone so far as to shelve responsibility completely, but have decided to close schools 'for the immediate period for which air raids may be expected'. A gloriously nebulous phrase!

Here a problem presents itself at once. Who is to accept responsibility for the protection of children suddenly turned out of the schools, particularly those who live so far away from their school that they could not get home within the seven to ten minutes' notice of a raid which it is thought might be the maximum warning?

One town in the North has tackled the problem in great detail. It proposes to operate a scheme of partial evacuation which depends upon the receipt of immediate and simultaneous signals to all schools and a close examination of the distances separating pupils from their homes.

Schools are to be electrically wired so as to receive from police headquarters a gong signal operated in code so as to indicate the number of minutes' 'grace' which might be expected before attacking planes reached the town. A

¹ This article was written before the Government's evacuation scheme was outlined.—Ed.

teacher, on hearing the gong, would decide which of the children would have time to reach home, and would instantly send them to their parents, the rest being retained under detailed safety precautions such as gas-proof and splinter-proof rooms.

The scheme has been based on exact information. It is known where each child lives and what is its nearest route home. The scheme proposes to issue to the children small coloured buttons, red ones being for children under five minutes of their home, blue for those within five or eight minutes, and green for those whose homes are eight to ten minutes away ; the slower speed of the younger children and even the possession of bicycles have been taken into account in arranging this list.

A teacher's instruction would thus be along these lines : 'All children with red, blue, and green buttons go home as quickly as possible and go now. The rest come with me.' For those sent home provision would be made for children whose parents would be at work to go to a neighbour, relation, or friend. On the basis of this distance schedule and of the school population it is computed that in ten minutes 59 per cent. of the scholars could be safely evacuated, in five minutes 34 per cent. This applies only to children of seven years of age and more ; the infants would not go to school during war-time. Rehearsals would be held to test the efficacy of these measures.

But these arrangements would not be suitable for London, nor probably for any town of considerable size with a large school population.

Hence the scheme for wholesale evacuation which has been adopted by the London County Council. This scheme is criticized in greater detail elsewhere. Admittedly in September last the arrangements for the transfer of scholars were admirable in many ways and the co-operation of the parents exceeded the highest hopes, but their reception in the districts allotted to them was quite another matter. Practically no arrangements were made for this difficulty, and much hardship and confusion resulted. Had hostilities broken out in real earnest, the conditions in many areas would have been chaotic. But this evacuation was only put into operation for London and some of the extra-metropolitan

areas—what would have been the result had evacuation for school children been carried out for the whole country? Would the transport system have been able to cope with the strain?

Throughout Great Britain there are over 20,000 state schools, all of which would provide tempting targets to an enemy in the event of air attack on this country. Air attacks would in a future war probably be directed against schools particularly, as the effect on the morale of the civil population of a number of children being killed simultaneously would be most disastrous.

It must be seriously doubted whether the evacuation of schoolchildren is practicable ; and even if the evacuation were carried out successfully it is uncertain whether concentration in country camps would give any additional safety.

It is most unlikely that an enemy will fail to realize that the best chance to destroy civilian life would occur while railway stations and transport depots, as well as trains and other vehicles, were crammed with people. Such a state of affairs would be most conducive to panic.

If evacuation is carried out successfully, what then? Are people to remain in the country indefinitely, thus dislocating the whole of the national life, or are they to return to their homes only to be evacuated again every time there is warning of an air raid?

The fact also seems to be overlooked that a concentration of people in the country will offer just as good a target as in the towns, and there would then be no overhead protection.

Whether or not evacuation is in itself desirable there still remains the fact that nothing has yet been done to ensure protection for school children. A system of scientifically constructed shelters would offer the best protection, could be erected speedily, and would be far less expensive than any other method of protection.

If shelter protection is relied upon there exists a great advantage to the nation in that, except in periods of intensive raiding, the schools can remain open. Although, if an intensive phase of a few weeks duration only

is assumed, the strictly educational loss incurred by a compulsory closure during those weeks would not be very serious, from the social point of view the continuance of school life under conditions as nearly normal as possible would be of the greatest value as a stabilising force.

As there appear to be no grounds for believing that a future war would be of short duration only, the best course would be to carry on the education of children.

Two types of shelter construction must be considered in relation to protection for school-children. In many old-established schools there is little space available for the construction of outdoor shelters, and protection would be given by a system of reinforced basements, ceilings and corridors. Where the ground space is available, as in most of the modern schools, a system of shelters away from the school buildings is advocated.

In the case of both modern and older established schools it is expertly estimated that where there are sufficient pupils, shelter from air attack could be given at a cost of 30/- per head, or 1/3 per head annually for a period of 20 years.

It is pointed out that the cost of transporting children from their home into the country, and then bringing them back when the danger was over would not compare favourably with this sum.

Concerning specially constructed underground shelters, experts in Britain, France and Germany favour the gallery type of shelter which, according to the Home Office A.R.P. Handbook No. 6, should be lined with steel in the form of an arch.

This type of shelter is adapted from the construction used in mine arch roadways. If the shelter is placed at a suitable depth complete immunity from high-explosive bombs can be given.

The lining of the gallery shelter is composed of sections of rust-resisting steel which lock into one another in the form of an arch. These interlocked steel sections can withstand tremendous pressure or shocks.

The trench system of air raid shelters is particularly favoured by the Home Office, as it gives a great degree of protection at a com-

paratively small cost. In the A.R.P. Handbook No. 6 the Home Office experts recommend that a system of deep trenches, lined with steel arches, offers the best form of mass protection.

Trenches have the advantage too that they can be constructed on many sites located far beyond the area of danger from collapse of buildings.

Schools which have extensive playing areas particularly lend themselves to this type of shelter. Trenches can be dug in suitable places, and when the lining has been introduced, the shelter can be covered again, leaving no disfigurement on the surface.

In the case of the older schools, many of which have not the space available for the construction of gallery or trench shelters, protection against all forms of air attack could be given by adapting existing school buildings.

Steps would first have to be taken to ensure that the roof of the building and the upper floors be reinforced to arrest, as far as possible, the effects of bomb explosion. A basement, corridor, or other room or set of rooms, sufficiently large to accommodate the staff and pupils, should be chosen as the indoor refuge. By reinforcing the ceiling and walls with flat sections of interlocking steel, supported by steel channels, it is possible to withstand not only the force of an explosion but also the weight of collapsed masonry. Doors should also be reinforced with or completely constructed of steel.

It is worthy of note that at last year's meeting of the British Association at Cambridge it was urged that new schools should be provided with air-raid shelters. Surely we should not stop at this, but do our best to ensure that children in the older schools also should be similarly protected. It is indicative of the feelings of parents generally on this matter that at a public meeting of parents and teachers called by the West London Teachers Association a resolution was unanimously passed advocating the provision of wholly adequate gas and bomb-proof shelters for all children.

(The principle adopted in most of the continental countries is to embody the schools in the Air Raid Precautions organisation, *i.e.* the teachers and the children are trained in Air

Raid Precautions work and will take their part in the organisation in the event of an emergency. This does not apply to France or Belgium. They are relying, at the moment, chiefly on evacuation.

In other countries shelters are being provided at the school, and the school will remain open.

The German Air Raid Precautions Act insists upon shelter being given at all schools, institutions, etc., and unless local conditions make it impossible, the shelter must be below ground level. In many cases, cellars, etc., have been adapted as shelters.)

During school hours, these shelters will, of course, be occupied by the children. Out of school hours, they will be open to the public. At every school one teacher has been appointed as an Air Raid Precautions Officer, and his organisation is periodically inspected by Government Inspectors. Wherever possible, shelters have been rendered bomb-proof.

The Government undertake to pay 60 per cent. of the cost and the Local Authorities 40 per cent. of the cost towards Government Schools. For private schools, the Government grant 60 per cent. of the cost.

In a number of cases, as a result of the enthusiasm created by propaganda, children have collected sums of money to pay for shelters and equipment. The school time-table lays down that each child should have two hours instruction, one hour theoretically in

the class room and one hour practical in the open country, etc.

Teachers are granted leave of absence from their work for Air Raid Precautions training and time employed in instructional courses must be granted independent of normal holidays. Any new school erected must conform with the regulations laid down by the Air Raid Precautions Act.

It is admitted by those most competent to know that the danger from gas is not nearly so great as we supposed a year ago. Gas masks are definitely not our first line of defence. The greatest dangers are the high explosive and incendiary bombs, and the Government know this and are at last making plans to protect the civilian population. But where are the plans for safeguarding the school children? The Head Teachers in most areas are not being consulted; as a body they are not represented on the Central Advisory Committee. This lack of special arrangements for the children and want of co-operation with those responsible for their safety in the schools—the Head Teachers—seems neither wise nor logical.

All those who have the interests of children at heart will surely press for the schools themselves to be safe from the air menace so that in the unhappy event of hostilities breaking out they can be sure of the maximum degree of safety with the minimum distortion to their normal life, both at home and at school.

Air Raid Precautions for Children in Czechoslovakia

Robert Marek

Prague

THE beginning of May, 1938, was a time when one of the most serious recent crises in Europe was in the course of precipitous evolution and was approaching its turning point. Czechoslovakia felt that her supreme rights and most vital interests were being seriously endangered by her overwhelming neighbours; she decided to defend her existence and political and economic interests to the last breath.

War seemed the only outcome to perplexed and overloaded brains. War was everywhere,

in newspapers, on posters, in coffee-houses, homes, in the thoughts of everyone.

The art of war in the twentieth century requires a careful and expert preparation with the minutest attention to detail in both its aspects, attack and defence. Czechoslovakia had to prepare to defend not only her liberty and democracy, but also her territory and her inhabitants. As is usual among cultured people, the slogan of defence organization was: safety to children and women first, and especially to children, who represent the

foundation and guarantee of a nation's future existence and vitality.

The organization for the defence and security of children in Czechoslovakia in case of war was up-to-date and far-sighted, owing to the ability and foresight of the persons in charge.

Every school child in this country was sufficiently supplied with necessary knowledge, training and equipment to lead a relatively safe life and carry out its duties even during a war. All young people from the primary school to the university got a thorough and comprehensive training in dealing with gas-masks, endurance tests in gas-cells and bomb-proof shelters. The gas-mask became part of the normal equipment of everyday life. A worker not impeded in his work by the gas-mask was a guarantee of a normal course of work in all fields of human activity in abnormal circumstances.

All schools incorporated in their curriculum courses of first-aid and gas-mask training. In those days of doom, schools in Prague assumed an aspect familiar to the readers of H. G. Wells' novels dealing with the future life of mankind or experiences of his fancied excursions to neighbouring or distant stars. Schoolrooms were filled with strange beings reading and reciting poems or racking their brains in solving complicated arithmetic problems on the blackboard. You could see those same Martian-like creatures engaged in our ordinary football on the school ground or leaping against the volley-ball net in the gym. At times you would catch a glimpse of a bunch of them cross-country running in the wooded vicinities or parks of the capital. Early morning, at noon, or late in the afternoon you could see them in their ordinary appearance, school-bag in hand or a satchel on their backs, not one nevertheless lacking a tidy bag or a tin can, containing a gas-mask, hung over the shoulder.

Worse days, nevertheless, were still to come. After the Berchtesgaden meeting, the European crisis was at its climax, liable to result in a very serious conflict, the outcome of which was beyond human imagination. The authorities had a hard time. This was the moment when the advantages of preparation showed. The vast scheme of war-care, thoroughly prepared

since a long time before, was set in action. Its construction, objectively judged, did credit to its authors.

According to war-care plans, school children were divided into two parts :

SCHEME A. A plan of evacuation dealt especially with children up to fourteen years of age. This scheme represented a masterpiece of organization, consisting of two sub-divisions, to be applied according to the intensity and duration of the expected conflict.

Sub-division I. The plan of internal evacuation (inside the territory of the state) was due to be set in action in the first phases of conflict. According to this plan, all primary schools in the cities (the peril of war operations was greatest there) had to be dissolved immediately after the beginning of war, and all children evacuated to remote and secure places of the hinterland. The areas taken into consideration were especially isolated districts in Slovakia and Carpathian Ruthenia. The choosing of suitable districts had been an object of careful investigation. They were located in distant and secure places, strategically unimportant, to evade the possibility of their becoming a battlefield, but, nevertheless, within easy reach, supplied with satisfactory means of communication, necessary for easy and quick supplying with food and other necessities of life. They were supposed to dispose of a sufficient number of buildings for lodging of the assigned contingent of children, or at least of a possibility of quick construction of improvised shelters. Last, not least, the children had to have, if possible, a chance of uninterrupted school attendance. The districts picked out as areas for internal evacuation were in close contact with communications to the easternmost limit of the republic, to the Czechoslovak-Roumanian boundary.

Sub-division II consisted of external evacuation of all children embodied in Sub-division I. It was supposed to be applied in case of a prolonged conflict or where danger arose of operations being carried out on Czechoslovak territory to which children had been evacuated. In case of invasion, all evacuated children had to be drawn back from the threatened district (in case of necessity from all) and transported to the allied state of Roumania, where they

would stay to the end of the conflict. During the whole course of the time regular news of them was to be sent to their relatives, contact with whom had to be maintained.

SCHEME B dealt with all young men and women from the age of fourteen up to twenty-one. They were supposed to stay to the last moment and to take an active part in the civilian defence. Members of boy-scout organizations, National Guards, Academic Legion, Sokol, Red Cross, and other armed gymnastic or charitable organizations were exempted from school attendance and put their services at the disposal of the authorities. At every school, civil anti-aircraft and first-aid squads were organized, consisting of boys and girls who had

passed previous anti-aircraft defence and first-aid training. All bomb-proof shelters, destined for the use of students, were hastily completed and adapted for immediate use. School defence squads were supplied by the authorities with all the equipment needed for emergencies arising from an air-raid. Everything was ready and everybody was prepared to encounter the approaching disaster with a bold arm and a firm eye ; but it came in a way nobody expected. It came, bloodless, but not a bit less horrible or cruel. All guns, gas-masks, all courage and manly determination, were in vain. In spite of all, the small, brave country in the heart of Europe was crushed and forced to meet her fate alone.

The Influence of Adult Fear upon the Child Mind

Tessa Hornik

Late of Vienna

THE attempt to get rid of fear as a factor in the education of children may be regarded as one of the constants in our conceptions of the object and nature of education—conceptions which, in other respects, change rapidly. This in itself is a great step forward, when we remember how education in the past was built up on a tyranny of fear, fright and punishment, and that it belonged to the normal nursery routine to threaten the child with a visit of the bogeyman if he did not behave, and likewise that it was the practice to lock children up in a dark room as a punishment.

We appear to have passed this stage ; we have learnt to base our education not upon fear and terror, but upon love and trust. But unfortunately, though we have succeeded indeed in getting rid of fear as a deliberate factor in education, our progress in a practical respect is but slight, since many of our educators, especially the mothers, are themselves so strongly ruled by fear that the life of the child still remains under its control.

As far as the actual effect and influence on the development of the child is concerned, it

really makes no difference whether we scare him with tales and threats of the bogeyman, or whether we communicate our own fears to him, and in this way make him fearful, timid and undecided.

Neither form nor words matter in education, and the fears and anxieties of the grown-up communicate themselves to the child with unfailing sureness. The parents' fear manifests itself in various forms, from crude obvious fear to the inner anxiety which the modern mother tries to conceal from the child, having heard so much about its evil effects. But concealment is of no avail ; where inward belief and personal conviction are lacking, the child cannot gain assurance.

The most important element, which renders illusory all attempts to hide the actual nature of things, and thus also one's own feeling of anxiety, is the existence of a form of speech appertaining to the organism as a whole (*Gesamtsprache*) which is independent of any particular word—a speech of expressions and gestures, the attitude *in toto* which connects all human beings and highly developed animals ; a phenomenon of great psychological and

pedagogic significance, which merits far more attention than it has received hitherto, which has been referred to particularly by the Viennese neurologist, Dr. Wilhelm Neutra. Only watch the hunter talking to his dog. Evidently the dog does not understand human speech ; but there he sits all ears and takes in what his master says to him with every fibre of his being : the connection of word glance, facial expression and gesture—every nuance of expression, however fine, of which the organism is capable. The old nurse addresses the two-year-old in the same way and we see too how grown-ups, when talking to children, involuntarily and instinctively avail themselves of the rich possibilities of expression afforded by lively play of gesture and feature. This 'Gesamtsprache' is the medium through which the child experiences the world around it and through which it gives expression to its own inner life. If, according to the famous saying of Talleyrand, speech is there chiefly in order to hide our thoughts, then we perceive in this 'Gesamtsprache' a language in which it is impossible to lie. The existence of this special language makes any attempt on our part to act toward the child otherwise than we actually feel, illusory ; this is particularly true of all attempts to conceal our own fears from him.

Those grown-ups who have fears regarding their children may be divided into the following groups :

(1) Those who are aware of their bad influence on the children and who, on this account, prefer to keep apart from them. Acting thus, they are instinctively choosing the most satisfactory way, a way however which has considerable disadvantages. It is particularly the small child who suffers, when it must spend the greater part of its time in a boarding school or is left in the hands of a governess, and so has to go without that parental love and domestic atmosphere which are of such importance.

(2) The large group of people who believe their fears to be well grounded, and hence are persuaded that one can never take too much care of children. The educational influence of this group—numerically very large unfortunately—is catastrophic ; it actually breeds fear. It is of course possible, by the principle

of opposites, to go to the other extreme and to neglect all natural care, so that the children become lightheaded and irresponsible human beings.

(3) Those, who try to conceal their fears. These parents go to great trouble to act according to the latest discoveries of modern educational science ; they are not conscious of their error and perceiving their lack of success, they begin to blame heredity. Now heredity in this sense does not exist ; what does exist is a certain neurotic tradition. Such a belief in heredity absolves the parent from all responsibility and begets a dangerous fatalism. This point once reached, all earlier efforts to educate reasonably are cast to the winds. 'I can do nothing about my child ; it will grow up just as unhappy as I am'. That usually is the burden of their song.

Once we have recognized the demands of modern educational science and that its yield is frequently barren when applied in practice, we begin to believe at last that the education of children ought perhaps to begin with the education of their elders. It would seem that there is only one cure and that, the true understanding by the parents of their own condition. Every teacher and psychotherapist will be able to cite from his own experience cases in which parental fears have influenced in a decisive manner the direction of a child's development. I will give two illustrations of this process.

The first is a tragic case of a person decisively influenced by a love which was coupled with such fears. An extraordinarily gifted child, she fell ill in her early childhood. She recovered, but the doctors ordered that she be treated with care and protected from overstrain. What does the over-anxious mother do ? The child's every step is anxiously watched ; every time she moves she is told to be careful ; she may get hurt ; it might be dangerous. She may not run, jump, or play with other children.

Thus all branches of the child's life were overshadowed by these continual reminders of illness and death, even long after the time when she had recovered her normal capacities. And the consequence ? This very gifted child is accompanied all her life by the idea of an early death. An ardent thirst for life fills her,

making itself felt almost as a mania, urging her to admit no obstacle to the achievement of her desires ; on the other hand the conception of an early death hinders the systematic development of her gifts as indicated by the rich natural mental make-up. The idea that serious work is senseless in view of our short span of life is characteristic.

The second case is that of a highly educated mother, intelligent above the average, who is much interested in educational questions and thoroughly acquainted with modern methods. By the age of ten her son was already worried with constant fears ; he shrank from horses in the street because he feared to be poisoned by their breath. He was completely incapable of participating in normal life, being swayed and tortured day and night by irrational fears. When he had a headache he believed himself stricken with a tumour of the brain. I came across this child in my school at the age of three and anticipated that he would develop precisely in this way. And the cause ? This was the fairly common case of a family ruled throughout three generations by fear. The clever and sensitive mother came from an aristocratic milieu, and her own education had lain beneath the shadow of all-ruling fear. The grandmother of the child complained to me of the carelessness of her daughter who had dared to let her child come into contact with other children, exposing it thus to the danger of mortal infection, a thing she would never have allowed herself. In reality it was painful to see the exaggerated anxiety with which the mother cut off her child from all contact with the outer world, how she even kept him from eating because stomach-weakness was among the family traditions. Thus the child grew up, until it fell ill with a severe fear neurosis and was treated by the doctors as psychically and physically unsound.

The question now arises as to how we can best guard the child from anxiety and at the same time help him to face reality. One thing is certain—nothing is gained from lying. Apart from all moral and religious considerations, it is useless (for reasons outlined above) to conceal from children facts which one considers dangerous. Children see through

stories and deliberate lies of all sorts with unfailing instinct even if they pretend to believe the tales told them by grown-ups. By lying to them we only succeed in destroying the essential foundation of trust which is the basis of all true education, and in awakening in the child's mind mistrust and resentment. There is no situation so terrible that one cannot communicate it to the child in a fitting manner and with natural tact and help him thus to find in it a fruitful experience. It is a senseless beginning to wish to keep children till a late age in an artificial paradise until one day they are exposed to the onslaught of a more or less unpleasant reality. Of course, much depends on the tact with which one allows the child to experience its gradual adjustment to reality. We don't wish to council here the method of the biologist who took his little girl with him into his laboratory in order to initiate her into the secrets of creation by letting her witness various vivisection experiments. Let us make no attempt however to conceal from the child the dark sides of reality, fear and pain, sickness and death. To take a single example, I have never yet found that a child gave trouble when the necessity of going to the dentist was explained calmly and reasonable and when it had been told beforehand that it would hurt. If one explains to the child that it is grown up and strong enough to bear a little pain, then it will undergo this trial self-consciously, perhaps even proudly. The reaction will be quite different if we conceal the true state of things from the child and merely explain to him that he is going to visit a 'good uncle'. Unprepared and deceived and confronted with the unpleasant reality of the electric drill this child will probably behave in a most unreasonable manner, and there will be considerable difficulties when it comes to persuading him to pay a second visit to his benevolent uncle.

Education is adaptation to reality. And if reality is by no means the idyll which an incorrect upbringing would make it seem, yet the best adventures for the child lie in this slow process of adaptation to life, and it is for our love to prepare for him an environment which will enable him to face these adventures fearlessly and with courage.

THE CHILDREN'S CITY

The Children's City appeals to us both as a humanitarian and an educational venture. Republican Spain, with its limited territory and resources, is heroically grappling with far and away the greatest refugee problem of the Old World. Three million destitute persons have somehow to be fed, clothed and housed. A very large proportion of these refugees are children ; many thousands indeed are orphans. The Children's City is designed to care for these pitiful little victims of aggression in the most economical and efficient manner possible. Every penny given is effective help in rescuing a child from cold and hunger.

It is more than this. The Children's City will not only feed and house destitute children but also minister to their almost equally urgent educational needs. The Spanish Government is determined that the terrible experience of the vagabond children in Russia after the last War shall not be repeated in Spain. In the Children's City the orphans will be under the sympathetic guidance of experts, and they will be given all the conditions necessary for growth to full human stature. They will learn, and while learning contribute to their own upkeep and that of their fellows. They will share in the care and management of their City. They will, to put it shortly, be given New Education ; education arising out of felt needs and regarded as an explicit part of a wide process of community building.

Of all the appeals addressed to us in these dark days the Children's City seems to us to touch most closely the purposes of the New Education Fellowship. Many of our members, working in safety and comfort, are asking themselves what they can do outside their daily round to help in the desperate battle between the kind of world for which we stand and the dark forces that are engulfing it. The Children's City offers them the means of directly aiding in the struggle through the medium of education in the widest sense of the term.

(Signed)

Laurin Zilliacus

Chairman, N.E.F.

Percival Meadon

Hon. Treasurer, N.E.F.

THE CHILDREN'S CITY

The Children's City is a plan to help on a large scale the children of Spain—the war orphans, the boys and girls separated from their families, the little ones who face the tremendous problems posed by the war without an adult's helping hand.

Gigantic efforts have been made by the Spanish Government to keep down the numbers of homeless and unprotected children. Colonies are giving shelter, food, and education to tens of thousands. But the influx of 3,000,000 refugees into limited Government territory and the continuous destruction of buildings by bombardment have created an acute housing crisis. The problem cannot be solved by the establishment of new colonies. The houses are simply not available.

Refugee centres afford immediate relief, but they are chosen for their size and are shared by people of all ages. Being emergency shelters, they lack the facilities and supervision which growing children require.

To meet this need the Women's Aid Commission was given the task of initiating a plan to provide care for the maximum number of children at the lowest possible cost and capable of continuing after the war.

The Children's City in Catalonia is this plan. It is designed to accommodate 1,000 children at a time. The construction is as economical as is consistent with durability and health. The problem of food transport is reduced to the lowest proportions since delivery will be along a main highway, not far from the frontier, and all at one point. Further, most of the children will be learning to till the soil, as their fathers did before them, so that they will themselves help to maintain their own food supply. The total cost will thus be lower than that of any full-time shelter scheme yet devised.

A CABLE

A cable has been received asking the New Education Fellowship to provide places in the Children's City for ten children. This means £140, and is the initial cost, including building and equipment, to house and educate that number of children. We cabled back, 'Prepared do our best support Children's City'. One of our members immediately responded

by sending the amount to provide a place for one child, i.e. £14 (2,700 French francs or \$70).

The scheme is being organized by the *Office International pour l'Enfance*, Paris, whose head is Dr. Wallon (Member of the Executive Board of the N.E.F.).

If the scheme is to go forward, support from other lands must be forthcoming.

WHY WE SHOULD HELP

A great deal of what we manage to do for refugees is, frankly, a palliative after the event: a necessary alleviation of suffering, but nothing more. It is one of our tragedies that at a time of grave crisis we are so seldom able to do more than ambulance work. In this respect the Children's City is different. It is a definite contribution to the future of democracy.

Children who have been on their own during the whole or part of the war in Spain mature rapidly. The Spanish Government is alive to the dangers of their position. It is determined that the experience of some countries after

the Great War, when bands of vagrant children took to the road, shall not be repeated. It is essential that children who have been uprooted shall have a fixed home, as much security as can be given them, regular care and education, if they are to become useful citizens when they grow up. To secure this for them is one way in which we can serve the cause of democracy.

WHAT CAN WE DO?

Some members and Sections of the N.E.F. have responded generously to our earlier appeals for the children of Spain. We are grateful to them and are not calling on them a second time. We appeal particularly to Sections outside Europe. We hope that the larger of them will try to provide a place for one child each. We hope that the smaller ones, and individual members everywhere who are able to do so, will contribute what they can. Gifts should be sent to Sir Percival Meadon, International Headquarters, N.E.F., 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

£14

provides a place for
ONE CHILD
in the Children's City

For the Defence and Strengthening of Democracy

The Council of the English New Education Fellowship, in view of the critical international situation, feel it imperative, as representatives of democratic education, to issue a call to united action.

We are convinced that the things we value most in life and the kind of education which cultivates them can flourish only in a social order that is truly democratic.

We realize that the failure of democracies, including our own, to secure social and international justice has played into the hands of Fascism and Nazism and has brought cultured and peace-loving peoples under their power.

But though we may appreciate the factors which have made possible an anti-democratic regime, we cannot escape our obligation to denounce anti-democratic philosophies and the methods which have become the accepted policy of anti-democratic governments.

We regard with abhorrence :

the deliberate cultivation among the young of an intolerant attitude towards people of other races or of different political or religious creed ;

the unequal distribution of educational facilities and social rights according to differences of sex, race and belief ;

the deliberate indoctrination of children with a totalitarian, militaristic and nationalistic conception of society ;

the refusal of access to sources of information, and the selection and distortion of established facts to suit propaganda purposes ;

the exploitation of science and the arts for purely nationalistic purposes ;

the denial of objective truth and the refusal of freedom for the creative arts ;

the deliberate use of hatred, fear and distrust as instruments of policy ;

the encouragement of cruelty in the persecution of racial and political so-called "enemies of the State" ;

the glorification of war and militarism ;

[The U.S.A. Section of the New Education Fellowship put forward a document (published in *The New Era* last month) in which they examined the present world situation from the point of view of American progressive educationists.

The English Section of the New Education Fellowship was stimulated by this to put forward a statement of their own, an interpretation of the world situation in terms of conditions pertaining in England. It is possible that other sections may wish to follow suit, in which case we hope that they will allow us to publish their findings.—ED.]

the repudiation of an international outlook based on friendship and co-operation.

What can we as educators do ?

We must press for an educational system which shall be fully democratic.

We must conduct our educational institutions in such a manner that the democratic ideal is experienced directly as a way of living.

We must make co-operation a day-by-day reality, giving each individual a feeling of responsibility for the whole and a share in determining the common life of himself and his fellows.

We must foster the habit of independent thought and expression of opinion.

We must seek to establish the method of discussion and persuasion rather than compulsion.

We must accept as a matter of course respect for the individual conscience.

But such an education is only possible or even appropriate in a democratic society. The fate of Democracy is therefore a first and immediate concern of educationists.

Teachers and educators are in an unusually favourable position to exert a great influence on public opinion, outside their actual teaching work. We remind our members and supporters that Democracy is an active and constructive political faith and that world events have shown that passive defence of democratic principles is insufficient to maintain and extend Democracy in the world of to-day.

We therefore urge all who are interested in education to do all they can to influence public opinion in active support of democratic principles and towards the full realization of democratic ideals.

We urge them particularly :

to launch in their respective centres a searching study of the meaning and practice of Democracy in school and community ;

to make clear to what extent our society and method of government are, in fact, truly democratic ;

to insist upon more rapid attainment of equal educational opportunity for all children irrespective of the economic and social status of their parents ;

to work unceasingly for the provision for all children of those basic conditions of nutrition, housing, general health and employment—without which even the best educational efforts are largely futile ;

to examine our educational methods and constantly to judge them by their efficacy in practice ;
 to maintain a vigilant watch upon our traditional liberties ;
 to unite in active opposition to anti-democratic methods ;
 to press for initiative on the part of this country in promoting international justice ;
 to do whatever they can to enable Democracy to become effective in action.

BOOK REVIEWS

The following books will be reviewed next month :

Manhood in the Making, edited by T. F. Coade (Peter Davies).

The Human Problem in Schools. Marion Miller (Methuen).

Public Schools and British Opinion, 1780-1860. Edward C. Mack (Methuen).

A Plea for a Plan. C. Alington (Longmans).

The Spens Report on Secondary Education, reviewed by Dr. Stead.

And others.

ST. CHRISTOPHER SCHOOL, LETCHWORTH

Those who would like to know about the educational way of life which is being developed by this community of some 240 boys and girls and 40 adults are invited to communicate with the Principals.

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A Boarding School for girls, standing on a slope of the Downs. Training in clear thought, practical action and artistic perception is provided for by a carefully balanced curriculum which includes all the usual subjects, as well as Speech-Work, Choral Verse Speaking, Dalcroze Eurhythmics, Handicrafts and Domestic Science.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Editorial Note

THIS issue of *The New Era* describes the use of various devices that have been introduced into our schools to supplement the work of the class teacher—films, wireless, gramophones, and lantern slides.

Teachers have approached these new teaching devices with caution. It is easy to see why. We feel reluctant in these rushing days to let more speed than we can help into our nurseries and classrooms. Time in which to grow is at least as important as room in which to grow, and there are probably no short cuts to growth or to knowledge. So that if these mechanical aids are viewed by teachers as short cuts, they are rightly viewed with mistrust.

Further, to educate is, properly speaking, to nourish. An American contributor puts 'exposure to good English' at the top of his list of advantages gained from radio lessons—and the word makes one pause. Is exposure a means of nourishment? Can we expose children to great thoughts or tales of good lives, or scenes from the past, and ensure they will gain nourishment thereby? The dictionary starts by being very discouraging: 'Exposure: Exposing, being exposed (*to* air, cold, danger, etc.), abandoning (of child)'. But the later glossings are more reassuring: 'display, especially of goods for sale; unmasking of imposture, etc.'.

There are evidently pitfalls in exposure, but great advantages, too. And the contributors to this number show how, aware of the pitfalls they are reaping the advantages. Through wireless and film they can display to the child vast fields, a few only of which he can make his own through patient learning. Without

these aids he might never realize they were there, but exposed too recklessly to their lure he might never make anything his own.

We do not want to turn out of our schools a generation agog at all the marvels of the world as presented to them by any mechanical device. As Mr. Wilkinson points out, a film is not a substitute for experience. We want to feed the child's imagination on the mystery of life—but that mystery does not lie in a dandelion that sprouts and blooms and seeds itself and sprouts again despite discouragement, all in ten minutes. The film of the dandelion's heroic will-to-live is marvellous—a heightened drama because the time element has been removed from it. To the six year old that drama is a delightful fairy tale, for he knows quite well it isn't true. But the older child, his intuition more blunted, might well gain a false idea of the value and meaning of life from a too lavish and indiscriminate display of its marvels. Teachers will have to be careful that these new devices are used for the 'unmasking of imposture', else they themselves might become an imposture on the young.

Yet these apprehensions are largely academic. One has only to read the following pages carefully to realize that these new devices are bringing to the school a vivid life that it has never known. Popular education may become truly popular, democracy may—just in time—achieve education, if only teachers can keep pace with these new stimuli and yet can nourish more patiently and more generously than they have ever done before.

The Film in School

R. M. Allardyce

Director of Education, Glasgow

I HAVE been asked to say why I am so enthusiastic about school films. To that I must reply that I am *not* enthusiastic about them, any more than about maps or blackboards or chalk. I regard them as an ordinary part of school equipment.

When I first saw a school film in use—nearly thirty years ago—I was not favourably impressed, but I had enough sense to reserve my opinion. I know now that in those days we demanded too much from an art that was still in its infant stage. The projection was poor, the photography imperfect, and the subjects on the whole unsuitable for school. Yet we must give all credit to pioneers of thirty and forty years ago, without whose efforts we would have failed to draw into the service of education an invention that plays so great a part in the life of the adult community to-day.

What has made me change my mind in regard to the school film? Mainly, I think, the great improvement that has been made within the last ten years in production and projection. The film producer has a better idea of what is wanted, the photography is better, and projectors of good quality can be obtained at a more reasonable price. Electric light is cheaper and more accessible. Screens are much better. As regards the mechanical side, we may safely say that modern sub-standard apparatus is sufficiently good and dependable to be worthy of a place in the school stock book. This great improvement, although it would not of itself have converted teachers to the use of the film, has made it worth while for producers and teachers alike to devote their energies to making better films, films of real use to the teacher in the classroom.

Forty years ago, when it was first suggested that educational films should be made, the first writer on the subject, who, by the way, was a photographer, not a teacher, clearly had in mind the 'lecture' or 'background' film, a film conveying information suitable for pre-

sentation to a large audience of young people. Such films are still very valuable as an educational medium, but their use must be limited if we wish to get the best return for our money.

The classroom film specially composed for teaching purposes is a more recent development. It is true to say that 'classroom films', deliberately so called, have been produced in America for several years, but such as I have seen of that series are really only lecture films under another name.

The real 'classroom' or 'teaching' film is, in one sense, a much less ambitious thing. It is, as a rule, much shorter, its content of information is less, and its stage is much less crowded. It is specially planned to fit into the normal school syllabus, it conforms to a specific educational technique, and it is graded to suit the needs of the age group to which it is to be shown. The lecture film replaces the teacher; the classroom film is an instrument in the hands of the teacher.

So long as the lecture film held the field, teachers and officials alike hesitated to press for the general adoption of the school film. Perhaps that was not the fault of the lecture film itself, for, as I have said, it has its place in our scheme, but rather, I think, the fault of the film vendors, who were too ready to sell for school purposes films which were merely adaptations of picture-house films or sections of publicity films produced for trade associations. One can hardly blame the film people for they had very little guidance from the schools. They had destructive criticism in abundance and too often uncritical approval, but they had little assistance by way of suggestions for improvement. Not until one or two adventurous producers began to employ special staff to make real teaching films was any real progress made. The last six years have brought on the market a reasonably good supply of films suitable for the classroom, films planned to meet the requirements of teachers and very often edited by teachers.

This being the state of affairs, one may wonder why the schools have been so slow in adopting the film. Their natural and, one may say, national conservatism is partly responsible, but the main difficulty has been the cost of installing the equipment. It was difficult to convince school managers that the initial expenditure and the subsequent cost of maintenance would be justified.

There are certain points on which the most progressive of managers require to be reassured before they sanction the purchase of new or unusually expensive equipment. Put briefly, the questions they ask are :

- (1) Has this apparatus passed the experimental stage or is it likely to be superseded almost immediately by something even more modern?
- (2) Is its use in the school likely to be continuous?
- (3) Do the teachers who ask for it represent the general body of teachers?
- (4) Is it generally accepted as a useful addition to school equipment?

The next question is 'What will it cost?' and with the answer to that question the general enquiry, I am sorry to say, often comes to an abrupt end.

With our own Education Committee the ground had been prepared for us to some extent by the results of an experiment they sanctioned in 1931. That experiment, which covered a period of two years, indicated that in geography and in nature study the film could be of some service as an aid to the class teacher. We then decided to carry out similar experiments with classes of mental defectives, with infant classes, and with classes of unemployed juveniles.

At first the Committee did not pay the whole cost of installation, but in 1936 they were asked by the teachers, through their professional organisation, to regard cinema equipment, including films, as ordinary school equipment, the cost to be borne by public funds without any subsidy from funds collected in school. The Committee, I am glad to say, were persuaded, without too much difficulty, to meet the demand of the teachers. I assured them that this demand was genuine, spontaneous, and widespread; that the school film had come to stay; and, lastly, that the cost would not be unduly

out of proportion to the general estimate for school supplies.

I had plenty of evidence to justify my statements. I had the results of our experiment, set forth by an expert statistician so coldly and algebraically that all the statisticians on the opposing side were for ever silenced! I also had the perhaps not too detached report of the Scottish Educational Film Association, a keen group of teachers who have given us great assistance in all film matters. I had reports from Continuation School Heads, from Infants Mistresses, from Heads of Day Schools, and, lastly, the testimony of many individual teachers. Perhaps most significant of all was the number of teachers who volunteered for a course of instruction in the manipulation of school projectors. Over 600 enrolled in the first course!

To show how the schools reacted, I may quote the following :

- (a) From the Headmistress of a Special School (for mental defectives) :

'We have found the cinema invaluable in this work. We find that it encourages the children to talk, with the result that their vocabulary has rapidly increased. Several have begun to make real progress in speaking since they were introduced to the cinema room.'

(A personal testimony of a general kind, but supported by a thorough test, supervised by experts.)

- (b) From an Infants Mistress in a large Primary School :

'We find the short nature-study films are very useful with our children. So few of them in this district have had any chance of seeing the country that some of our book lessons have been rather unreal. Now that we can have films to fit into our syllabus, it is very much easier to awaken and retain their interest.'

(We did not apply a formal test to the Infants. We have, however, had demonstrations of film lessons given to children of from five to seven years of age. These demonstrations have convinced many of us that in the crowded areas of our great cities the school cinema is a necessity.)

- (c) From the Headmaster of a Primary School :

'My experience confirms the statement in your Report that impressions made by the film are more lasting than those made by

ordinary oral instruction unaccompanied by visual demonstration.'

(The reference is to the passage which says 'Pupils taught with the cinema tend to retain what they have learned better than those taught without it'.)

There was certainly no doubt that many teachers found it a useful addition to their stock of equipment and were anxious to have it permanently in their schools.

Their obvious sincerity provided the answer to my next point, the doubtful duration of this 'craze', as some called it, for the school film. Was this film business really a 'stunt' operated by vested interests, or was it a passing craze? No doubt there *were* vested interests at work but the profits were not so dazzling as to make any great campaign really worth while. The 'craze' suggestion was more persistent, and was harder to kill. I suppose we shall always be criticised by those who walk in the old ways; they were unusually vocal and still are, in regard to the school film; much of their opposition has now subsided.

I was left with the last deadly question of price. How could I convince my Committee that the expenditure would be worth while? I told them what my plan would be; one silent 16 mm. machine for each school, six more expensive 16 mm. silent machines for lending on special occasions, and six talkie machines, also 16 mm., to be in circulation. A capital cost of about £8,000 for projectors alone, not to mention films, screens, wiring, blinds, etc. Further, we wanted to have a film library of our own, say 1,000 films!

It would have been unfair to tell our Committee that we had any idea what the cost of upkeep would be. Nobody could tell. All I could do was to propose a spread-over of capital cost on a sort of five-year plan, and this was accepted. In the first year under that new arrangement we spent about £2,900, of which about £1,900 was in respect of equipment; the rest went on the hire and purchase of films. Our total bill for school apparatus and stationery (apart from books) was in that year £29,000.

To cut a long story short, our Committee thought they could trust us to spend money wisely and gave us, more or less, a free hand. The schools had their projectors, if they wished,

and we had a better supply of films to send out to the schools.

Now how do the children react to all this? On the whole I think they like the school cinema better in the classroom than when it is 'mass demonstrated' in the school hall. They feel a little critical when they see a film in the school hall. They are inclined to compare it with the film of the picture house, much to the advantage of the latter. Yet to be fair to them, they will follow with a certain amount of interest a background film shown in school as part of their work, although the same film in a picture house would bore them. *Per contra*, they do not really care for comic films as an item in their school programme. I think the real difficulty is to find lecture films that will suit a wide age range, sufficiently advanced to hold the interest of the older pupils and not beyond the comprehension of the younger.

The success of the classroom film lies in its dependence on the teacher for its fulfilment. The good classroom film has few or no 'captions'; it is arranged with due regard to accepted teaching method; it conforms as far as possible to the old Three Unities. Yet, unlike the lecture film, it does not speak entirely for itself; it is merely an instrument for the teacher to use. Some teachers can use it more successfully than others, but that is true of all teaching aids. Where it is well used it amply repays the time and thought and trouble spent on it.

One last word about the time-table. I am often asked how much time should be devoted to film lessons. That I cannot answer yet. At this stage our schools are working out their own ideas on that point and it may be years before we come to any agreement. Roughly speaking, however, we may say that with children from five to seven years of age one or two five-minute films per week will be enough. From seven to nine the same number should be used, with the addition of a longer film, say of eight minutes, once a month. For older children in the Primary School the time will depend on the number of films available; probably thirty minutes per fortnight will be all that is possible. In the Central and Secondary Schools no hard and fast rule can be made.

The Educational Film in England and Elsewhere

F. Wilkinson

WHEN writing to-day on the subject of the educational film one's main aim should be to avoid repeating what has so often been said already.

For instance, there has been considerable lamentation because we in England, in comparison with other countries, have lagged so far behind in the number of projectors in use in our schools. So incessant was this outcry a year ago that I decided to visit France, Russia, and Germany to find out for myself what the relative situation actually was. I found that the number of projectors issued accorded with the official statistics, and consequently our alarm in this respect was justified. But I also formed the opinion that a comparison based solely upon numbers of projectors was both inadequate and unreliable and that many more factors needed to be considered. The films worked by the projectors needed to be evaluated and indeed the lessons based on them as well.

To bring these elements into the assessment needed a much more extensive survey than I was able to make.

Nevertheless, after reviewing representative samples of educational films in all the three countries I visited, attending film lessons and having many discussions with educationists and teachers, I came to the conclusion that the state of the film in English education was not so bad as it had been represented. My conclusion, in fact, was that the pupils in English schools were gaining as much benefit, both quantitatively and qualitatively, as were their contemporaries abroad. We, in fact, made up for our quantitative inferiority in the quality of our best films and in the manner in which the English teacher has used this new medium.

A number of interesting factors arose in the course of my investigation. It seemed significant to find that all nations have met with the same problems in the process of introducing

Headmaster of Latymer Upper School, London

the film into teaching. Also, and quite independently of one another, they have solved these problems in much the same way. For example, I found that the technique which we have evolved here is universal—the introductory preamble by the teacher, the first showing, the discussion lesson, the second showing (in Germany this is done at a faster rate than at first showing), the final recapitulation of the main points and the setting of work on the lesson to assure an immediate follow-up.

In Russia I realized in particular how absolutely essential the film had become to a community with so little educational background, so much illiteracy to counteract and so many elements of diversity needing urgent welding. I was therefore not surprised to find that the present Five Year Plan contains an order for 70,000 projectors.

In Germany, where everything concerned with teaching by film is controlled by the Ministry of Education, I learned the irresistible power of the film as a means of propaganda and how subtle a means it can be in clever hands. In France, where the problems are nearest to our own and like ours are mainly concerned with finance, I had the opportunity of studying a new situation in education which the film has introduced—the fact that educational films have as great an appeal to adults as they have in the classroom. By this means the co-education of parents and children—a matter many educationists have long wished to foster—can be considerably facilitated. In France, this situation arises in connection with the system of village centres about which the Government has been so active. In Russia also I found the opportunity to educate adult and child simultaneously taken full advantage of. Only in Germany is the official educational film not allowed to be shown anywhere except in the schools (but whether there is political intention behind this rule, I was not able to ascertain).

There is, however, one thing concerned with the educational film in which we have chosen to differ. In those countries I visited it has been decided that films for use in school should be silent. In England, although there is still controversy on the matter, the sound film is tending to gain ground. The chief arguments on behalf of the silent film I heard abroad were first of all that the increased expense needed for sound films would limit the number of projectors. Therefore, it was maintained that it was better to equip most schools with silent projectors than only a few with sound ones. The other main arguments were that sound films endangered the sovereignty of the teacher and could not be stopped for purposes of explanation.

My own view is that for some objects the silent films offer the best medium of interpretation but that the majority of subjects need sound. But by sound I mean natural sound and not imposed commentary. It is the visual image in the film that counts and where commentary is used it is usually a confession of visual inadequacy. I have not yet met the ideal commentary except possibly in *Night Mail*. I am also amongst those who are opposed to stopping a film during running. If a film is made so that it can be stopped it would be better to employ the magic lantern and the epidiascope in its place. A film connotes animation and no film worthy of the name has given its message until it has been seen right through at the rhythm designed for it by its creator.

Despite the irresistible impression made by the film on us to-day (but I am not at all sure that the film will always maintain its present supremacy), it has a definitely limited scope in education. It can never replace the other mechanical aids. It can never reach the status of the book, for it is for mass consumption and provides only supplementary aid to private study. As a menace to individualness it must be controlled and kept in its place. The film can also never diminish the importance of the teacher. Those teachers with inadequate creative faculties may welcome it, as they do the wireless, because it supplements their deficiencies, but real teachers will use it with reasoned discretion.

One of the greatest assets of the film lies,

of course, in its capacity to link up the classroom with the outside world. But here again there is a danger. A film of a manufacturing process, for instance, should never eliminate all visits to factories. It should be allowed only to supplement such visits and by means of the selective properties of the film enable the child to improve its own powers of perception. In other words, the film is not a substitute for real experience. There are experiences, however, of which the child for one reason or another is deprived. All the school journeys of a lifetime will only make up a very small world. Here the film can do invaluable service. One cannot nowadays imagine an adequate course in biology or geography without a quite extensive use of the film. In history, literature and art also the film could provide both information and experience which so far has gone by default because of there being so few films on these subjects. To certain types of child the written and spoken word conveys very little. Such children, however, have been found to respond intuitively to visual impression. As examples of what I mean I can quote the good service rendered by the films made by G-B Instructional on various poets and on historical subjects. In the film on Shakespeare many children for the first time realized that the poet's imagery and analogy had a basis in reality and was not just sound. In the historical film of the coal industry statistics were revealed as arising out of men's lives and occupations whereas in the text book they always seem to have a detachment which is almost hostile.

Talking of historical films brings me to the historical entertainment film. Since so many children visit the cinema regularly no school can afford to ignore the programmes of the local cinema, especially when a film dealing with history is being shewn. It must be discussed both in its obedience to fact and its departure from it. Up till the present, teachers will unfortunately have had to deal mostly with the entertainment film's infidelity to truth. This being so, it is the more encumbent upon teachers not to allow a false impression to remain in the minds of their pupils. To undo the harm of an unreliable film is not a difficult task, for children have a much higher regard

for truth than have adults and the bringing to justice of an unscrupulous producer can be made both exciting and memorable. Gradually also in a series of such lessons the art of film appreciation can be inculcated. Critical faculties can be awakened and developed. Film going can be transformed from a drug into a mental cordial.

My concluding remarks must unfortunately deal with a matter which is causing all who have to deal with the film in education considerable anxiety. The term 'Educational' film covers a variety of categories. There is the broad classifications into background and teaching or classroom films. There are the various subjects dealt with in their different ways. There are also three further classifications—the educational film which has been made solely for use in the classroom and the film made primarily for some other purpose (generally that of advertisement) which has then been adapted for use in schools. Thirdly there is the 'short' film made for public entertainment, which has been broadly educational in its matter and presentation and has its acknowledged place in the catalogue of school films. Of the first of these categories—the film made solely for school use—comparatively few have been made in this country. So far there has not been a sufficient market to make the production of these films worth while. The second category—the adapted publicity film—is the one which has provided most of our school films. A large proportion of these films are unfortunately not entirely suitable for use in schools, but teachers have had to put up with them because they have been the only type of which there was an adequate supply. The third type—the 'Short' film

made for entertainment purposes—has provided schools with their most useful films because, by the coincidence of circumstance, England has excelled in the mastery of this kind of film. In my tours abroad I saw nothing to equal the masterpieces of the G.P.O. Film Unit, G-B Instructional and Strand Films. The value of these films as background to the syllabus is immense. They have not only brought knowledge to children which has hitherto only been ineffectively interpreted but they have provided children with an aesthetic experience comparable to that which the fine arts and literature can give.

It is therefore a matter of national concern that since the passing of the last Cinematograph Films Act the production of these films has rapidly decreased until now it is at a standstill. These films were made previously because high quality 'Shorts' were a commercial proposition. They are no longer so and henceforward films of this kind will only be made when sponsored for publicity purposes. Unless, therefore, there is an alteration in the law, nothing can save this industry and the finest work of the British studios will disappear. The schools in particular will suffer, for not only have their best background films come from this source but their classroom films have been made also by these same manufacturers. When one compares this state of affairs with the system achieved in Germany whereby each year some 75 films are being made for the schools by collaboration between teachers, directors, and manufacturers and where the system works at a profit without the need of Government subsidy, one can only feel the more depressed by this further example of our inability to avoid inanition and muddle.

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The Visual Radio Lesson in Cleveland Schools

William M. Gregory

Director Educational Museum,
Cleveland Public Schools, U.S.A.

THE daily use of pictures, lantern slides, maps, charts, and other aids to learning has been common in the classrooms of Cleveland since 1910. The circulation of lantern slides alone, has been as high as two million annually, making a high average for each classroom. In like proportion other visual aids have been widely used.

However, it has been known that these visual aids were not being exploited to their full extent. So, in 1932 experiments were conducted with a view to adapting the radio, the curriculum material, the visual aids and the teacher's technique more closely to the pupils' classroom work.

Some of the first experiments were conducted in elementary geography.¹ The plans of the geography curriculum were closely followed in preparing the script for the broadcast lessons. The visual aids in the form of lantern slides were carefully chosen and made a definite part of each lesson. The script and the slides were tested with a class. Revision and rewriting of the script for the lesson followed. One lesson each week, or about eighteen lessons for the semester, were prepared along with mimeographed direction sheets for the classroom teacher to use in connection with the lesson as received in the classroom. This preliminary preparation of a visual radio lesson required the close co-operation of a classroom teacher, an expert in geography, a school principal, and the Educational Museum as the source of the visual aids. It is a task for the expert to prepare script, select and adjust the visual aids, and the work of a teacher to test the same with a class. This is an effective method of getting a new course of study under way, as well as training pupils

and teachers in the use of visual aids. In the visual radio lesson the use of the lantern slide map, the picture, or other aid is not left to a chance projection, as each teacher receiving the lesson is provided with a projector and the slides that are in use. Thus the radio seems to be the much-sought link between the visual aids and the presentation of the subject matter to the class. This seems like a step forward.

The greatest failure of the visual aids supplied by visual instruction organizations and museum bureaux is their lack of close adjustment to school-room instruction. Classroom teachers complain of this failure and of the lack of discrimination in the selection and organization of such visual aids. The stock aids are not only unadjusted to modern school-room instruction, but the classroom teacher cannot borrow them long enough to make full use of them.

In this new visual radio plan the teacher taking the visual radio lesson has in her classroom a lantern slide projector, and a set of slides which covers the term's visual radio lessons in geography, history, health, or other subjects. Each visual radio set is carefully chosen by *classroom teachers* and *experts in the subject*, from the resources of the Educational Museum. In making up material for one visual radio set, frequently 5,000 or more pictures are carefully considered and from them about 50 are formed into a set.

What is a Visual Radio Lesson?

The visual radio lesson for Cleveland classes is about 15 minutes in length, consisting of one broadcast lesson each week in a subject, each lesson being a part of the regular instruction in that subject for that particular school division. The procedure consists of some preparatory work by the classroom teacher leading to the regular 15-minute broadcast

¹ 'Radio Guidance for Geography Instruction in the Cleveland Elementary Schools'. W. M. Gregory. *Educational Method*, Nov., 1937.

lesson, which is illustrated by lantern slides or other materials, followed by a check-up and a review. Each lesson is supplied with instructions to the teacher and material for the pupil. The radio lesson is prepared six months in advance by expert teachers in the curriculum centre concerned ; *i.e.* the history lessons are prepared in the social studies curriculum centre, the safety lessons are prepared in the safety curriculum centre, the science lessons are prepared in the science curriculum centre, etc. All curriculum centres are schools especially assigned for the preparation and testing with classes of the subject matter and the aids to be used. It should be understood that the visual radio lesson in many cases is only one lesson out of four others that are given during the week in a subject.

The reader will consider that the visual radio lessons referred to in this discussion are only of the type described above and are a part of the definite instruction carried on by the Cleveland Public Schools. The radio field has become too large to include here any discussion of the many lessons of general cultural background, the nation-wide broadcasts of civic interest, the various sponsored educational programmes, the invaluable news flashes, the cultural programmes, etc. It is attempted to discuss here only the radio lessons as functioning tools in Cleveland classrooms. They are designed to aid pupils in learning and offer training to teachers in the daily class use of visual aids. In being made to serve both teacher and pupils they are more than just listening exercises. In Cleveland schools 'just listening' to the radio was as short lived as its predecessor 'just showing' a movie had been.

The radio is a new device which if it is to be an educational tool requires professional experiment in the classroom to adjust it to learning. It is obvious that it offers some serious problems for school executives ; problems of content and technique, as well as problems in the selection and use of visual aids, likewise problems in the habituating of pupils and teachers to its use. All of these require experiment for their solution. While they are not all entirely peculiar to radio instruction, the radio focusses attention upon

them and necessitates action. For example, the selection of visual aids and the proper technique in their presentation are of the utmost importance when such materials are selected for city-wide use in connection with weekly broadcasts.

Again, it is well to direct attention to the very remarkable function that the radio has in uniting the classroom, the teacher, the expert, and the carefully-chosen visual material. To those who are interested in the more expert use of visual aids, the radio appears to be a most remarkable tool to help in introducing new techniques, and to prevent stagnation in the visual instruction organization. Teachers can be trained, pupils instructed, new courses put into action, visual materials adjusted to their proper use.

Mechanical Equipment for Visual Radio Lessons

The above ideas, if carried out in a city-school system mean a considerable mechanical equipment. The first broadcasting of daily lessons was done by the commercial stations of Cleveland as a courtesy to schools but in 1938 the Cleveland Public Schools received a grant from the General Education Board which made it possible to establish the ultra-high frequency educational station WBOE (41.5 mc). This station has been established and through its 150 receiving sets placed in all elementary schools, lessons and activities for teachers and pupils are broadcast. This means that the school system of Cleveland consisting of 150 buildings and 136,000 pupils has an equipment in the way of an educational tool that can develop ideas and attitudes as effectively as is done by the newspapers, the commercial radio, and other agencies for mass education. It is obvious, however, that radio equipment alone is not enough to make broadcasts effective, and so visual aids have been used to make the equipment for learning more complete.

The Visual Aids

The aids which have seemed most effective in the visual radio lessons are lantern slides. These are well adapted to the radio lesson technique. They are low in cost and easily handled. Trials have shown them to be

superior to the picture of the text, or the mounted picture in the hands of the pupil. The lantern slide displays any material where all may see. It is easily and quickly changed. It is so cheap that it can be organized on a large scale, for use in city-wide broadcasts. Some slides are printed on the rotoprint for seven cents each.¹

In Cleveland the visual radio lesson lantern slide sets are made in duplicate for 120 schools. Each set consists of about 50 slides placed in a small box and is delivered to the classroom teacher concerned. This gives each teacher the basic material for each radio lesson. This unit radio set remains in the classroom for the entire semester. It is the basis for review and follow-up work. These sets belong to the Educational Museum and are recalled at the end of the semester when the slides are revised to suit curriculum changes. Under this plan material does not stay in storage or become out of step with classroom work. Even if radio lessons are not repeated each semester these unit sets are still essential for instruction.

The selection and adjustment of the necessary visual materials for the radio lesson require a full co-ordination of the school authorities from the chief executive to the schoolroom teacher. It involves an expenditure which, like the text-book, or the laboratory equipment, has a direct application to the daily work of pupils. By using technical skill the cost of the lantern slides can be reduced, especially when all duplication of slides is made from negatives owned by the Educational Museum of the Cleveland Schools.

The following table shows the sets, grades, subjects, etc., for the radio material in lantern slide form that is now in use :

RADIO LESSON LANTERN SLIDES SETS, 1938-1939			
Title.	No. of Sets.	No. of Slides.	
Art (6B)	100	3,100	
Elementary Science (3B, A, 4, 5B)	579	18,843	
Geography (4B, A, 5, 6)	632	30,247	
Geography Maps (Elementary)	115	5,570	
Health and Hygiene (4B)	100	2,100	
History (5B)	100	4,200	
History Maps (Elementary)	110	1,650	
Safety (Primary and Upper Elementary)	390	13,910	
Social Graphs (Junior High)	32	1,600	
Your Child and His School	100	4,500	
TOTAL	2,258	85,720	

¹ A New Method of Quantity Production of Graphs and Diagrams on Lantern Slides. W. M. Gregory. *Educational Screen*, April, 1938.

The above material has been in process of organization since 1934 and is being expanded each term. Eventually each school will have its complete set of radio slides.

The organization of the above equipment to function with the radio lessons leads to the planning of regular school lessons to be broadcast. The following is the programme of lessons broadcast in the fall of 1938 :

CLEVELAND PUBLIC SCHOOLS					
Radio Schedule					
Station WBOE					
September 26, 1938—January 27, 1939.					
Time.	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.
9.15	6B Spelling	6B Spelling	6B Spelling		6B Spelling
9.30		4B Geography	5B-A Science	2A Arithmetic	
10.00	5B History			4B-A E.I Science	
10.30					
11.00	6B Art	3B-A Science	4B Health		
1.30	5B Spelling	5B Spelling	5B Spelling		5B Spelling
2.00	4B Music		Your Child and His School. Parents of Pre-School Children.		Primary Safety
2.40					
3.15			Elem. Phys. Ed. Teachers		

These experiments with visual radio lessons have indicated that these tools have some decided values in instruction, *i.e.*

- (1) Exposure to good English.
- (2) Presentation of well-organized lessons.
- (3) Direct study of a few carefully-chosen lantern slides.
- (4) The pointed use of maps, diagrams, and pictures.
- (5) Guidance in observation.

Some difficulties are those attending :

- (1) Mass instruction and the individual.
- (2) The organization of a large amount of visual materials.
- (3) Sufficient budget for the required equipment.
- (4) Fitting new ideas and materials to school procedure.

Broadcasting as an aid to Music Teaching

Cyril Jackson

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House, Leeds

How can broadcasting help the music teacher? Music broadcasts should, in the main, be subject to the limitations of all other school broadcasts; they should be supplementary to the day-to-day work of the teacher. They may give examples of good singing; yet the teacher in his classroom is the only check on the pitch and tone of his class-singing. They may demonstrate a simple musical form, and give material for intelligent listening; yet without the guidance of a teacher little would be achieved.

The *extent* to which the broadcasts can assist in the child's musical education is dependent on the ability of the individual teacher, and in music, perhaps more than any other subject, there is great disparity of standard between teachers in schools of the same type, concerned with children of the same age-range. This is not unnatural, for to expect a brilliant musician in every school is a vain hope. Yet there are many such, scattered amongst the schools, and between their work and that of the 'non-specialist' is the disparity which has to be remembered in an assessment of music broadcasting.

Let us consider the provision. For young children there are two courses of 'Music and Movement' given by Miss Ann Driver. They are intended for infants of 5 to 7 years, and 7 to 9 years respectively. For our purpose they may be considered together, since the same aims run through them both, though at different levels. In her broadcasts Miss Driver persuades the children to interpret in rhythmic movement all kinds of music. In addition to her own delightful improvisations she uses many of the folk tunes and national songs that the pupils will normally be learning, and thus, from the beginning, she is creating for them an anthology of music. This is not the place to

describe the methods which Miss Driver herself has so adequately explained. It is sufficient to say that the children learn to translate into movement simple rhythms, pulse and accent, pitch, phrasing, and elementary musical form. This is in itself an excellent training in elementary musicianship, but in addition, by the methods Miss Driver has adopted, the children are week by week learning to listen to music, and interpret its moods. To anyone who has not seen a class of 6-year-olds in action this may seem an exaggerated claim. The only answer is, 'Go and see!'

It is sometimes argued that Miss Driver not merely supplements, but supplants the teacher. To some extent that is true. She is a most successful 'intruder', and for twenty minutes of each week can depose the regular monarch of the classroom. But that is not to say that the teacher is cast into outer darkness. Quite apart from the rest of the child's musical training—the singing of songs and aural exercises—she can do a great deal with Miss Driver's work when the broadcast is over. Many teachers, who can themselves give good lessons of the same type, are glad to enlist the aid of such an ally. When she has finished, her ideas can be adapted to fit into and enlarge their own schemes. Other teachers, with less gift for this kind of work, are able to repeat and revise many of the movements of the broadcast, and correct mistakes which the children may have made. It is important that during the broadcast the teacher should have interfered as little as possible, since the individual response is so valuable; but 'corrective' repetition carefully conducted to avoid staleness is to be commended. Finally, there are many teachers who cannot satisfactorily follow up the broadcasts, for various reasons. To them, even, the wireless can be

useful, since it adds to the child's education something which would normally be lacking. In other words the broadcasts can of themselves add something to the music course, but that something may be magnified in proportion to the ability of the individual teacher. A statement recently issued by the Music Sub-Committee of the Central Council for School Broadcasting makes the point clearly :

It is generally recognized that the maximum benefit can be derived from most School Broadcasts only if they are accompanied by some form of preparation and follow-up. With this, as a general principle, the Music Programme Sub-Committee of the Central Council for School Broadcasting is in complete agreement, but it is of the opinion that to a certain extent the Music broadcasts, and in particular the Music and Movement broadcasts, can quite usefully be taken without such preparation and follow-up.

The Music and Movement broadcasts particularly are likely to be of value to schools that have not, as well as to schools that have, a teacher who is practised in playing the piano. Indeed, schools that have no teacher practised in playing the piano constitute a considerable section of the audience for which these broadcasts are intended.

The pamphlet on Music and Movement contains suggestions for following up the broadcasts with piano, gramophone, or singing. The broadcasts can nevertheless be taken with advantage by schools that cannot do this, either for reasons of time, equipment or staff, and it is hoped that inability to follow them up thoroughly will not deter any school from taking the broadcasts.

The most enlightening commentary on these courses is the fact that they are used in large urban schools with specialist teachers and in one-teacher rural schools. In both they are successful. The concrete achievement varies according to the type of school, but the particular needs of each school are satisfied. The courses are often taken outside the specified age-ranges, so that one is scarcely surprised to find 9-year-olds using the infant course, and the 'junior' course being used in the entry class of a senior girls' school. These broadcasts are also proving extremely valuable for backward children of many ages, as both the music and the movement appeal to them.

Next in the provision of music broadcasts come two parallel courses, 'Early Stages in

Music' and 'Preparatory Concert Lessons'. In view of the varying standards of musical attainment in schools, there has been no attempt to limit them to specific age ranges. As their titles imply they are elementary courses, intended to help those schools which may not have full resources for the teaching of music to a high standard.

'Early Stages', broadcast fortnightly, aims at supplementing all branches of the child's musical education at this period. It gives some practice in the learning of songs, with instruction in phrasing and some help in voice production. The elementary theory of music is stated very simply, and is illustrated mainly by songs, which the children themselves sing, as well as by occasional instrumental performance. Furthermore, the pupils can hear their own familiar folk tunes and national songs well sung by good singers. They are also introduced to some of the instruments of the orchestra, and learn to recognize their distinctive quality.

As with the Music and Movement broadcasts it is not possible to generalize about the use made of these broadcasts. Some teachers with no musical ability take them for the help they give in the teaching of singing, and may or may not neglect the theory. Capable teachers of singing use them mainly as a means of introducing their pupils to familiar songs well performed; and for the musical theory which they might not be able to give. There are also some 'musician'-teachers, capable of developing both sides of the work. They welcome the extra illustration, and the different presentation of the material. 'Follow-up' ranges from the bare repetition of songs learnt during the broadcast, to the careful study of theory, and practice in music dictation and in tune-writing.

The Preparatory Concert Lessons, another fortnightly course, alternates with 'Early Stages'. It is of recent introduction, and has as its first aim to give children the opportunity of hearing good yet simple music well played. In the process they will learn to know the instruments of the orchestra, and become acquainted with a number of famous themes and complete shorter works of the great composers, besides extending their knowledge

of folk music. Above all, in carrying out this programme, the children will learn to listen happily, but critically, to good music. What the child hears must be good, but 'good' need not be synonymous with 'complex', and the illustrations are chosen for their simplicity and melodic appeal. Remembering always that interest is the first step towards enjoyment, the broadcasts are presented, often dramatically, but always so that the effort of listening is not, at first, too great. Marching songs, working songs, dance music, are the obvious first approaches to the child's interest, and through them he can be taught the elements of form in music.

This course has been in existence only for a few months, so that an account of its usage is not yet possible. Some teachers are certainly taking it merely as a fortnightly interlude in their normal course, much as they would take their class to a children's concert if one were available. Others are making more of the broadcasts by means of further illustration. But however classroom method may develop, there is no doubt that the series is a valuable contribution to the school course, since it consists of material that the average school can only with difficulty procure, while it is rare food for a rising generation of musical listeners.

The most advanced of the Music broadcasts, the Senior Concert Lessons, are probably most criticized and most praised. As is clearly stated in the Broadcast Programme, 'they are intended particularly for pupils who have the advantage of specialist teaching.' Unfortunately many schools not of this standard are attracted by them, and find them beyond their reach, with resultant criticism of the broadcasts.

At the moment the course is planned so that in each of the three terms one major composer is studied. It follows that, according to the works chosen for consideration, the pupils will gain an incidental knowledge of certain types of musical form, and will become acquainted with certain instruments. During the current school year, for example, Bach was the subject of the Autumn Term. By the end of the term the pupils had heard examples of the Dance

Suite, the Canon, the Fugue, the Chorale, and so on, and had been introduced to the harpsichord, clavichord, organ, violin, oboe, and bassoon.

These are difficult broadcasts, and whether their standard is too high to benefit the majority of senior and secondary schools is matter for argument. As they are planned, they make an extremely valuable supplement to a music course, provided that the first conditions are fulfilled. But like the other courses they are utilized in a variety of ways. Some schools select only a few from each term's broadcasts; one may wish to include all those which introduce the instruments of the orchestra; another may want the exposition of a certain musical form, or merely a concert. In certain schools the whole series is treated as pure 'concert', while in others it is made the basis of a serious course of study. Again it is the teacher who decides its final contribution.

If we return to our opening question we find that the manner in which broadcasts can help is mainly by giving 'performances' on the one hand, and expert technical information on the other. To provide the music teacher with concerts, and with individual vocal and instrumental performances, is an aid, the value of which is beyond question. At his discretion the teacher can work upon that material until it satisfies the needs of his own course. The value of the expert is, perhaps, more dependent upon the extent of the teacher's skill. The better the teacher, the more will he benefit from the help of the expert. In any case, 'Here is God's plenty'.

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Familiarity and the Enjoyment of Music

R. R. Dale

Music Master,
Davenant Foundation School

THIS article describes an attempt to collect evidence about the effect of repetition on the enjoyment of music. Is the old adage true when applied to music? Does familiarity breed contempt? and if so, in what circumstances? By means of a series of roughly statistical tests made with gramophone records, it seems to have been established that when adolescent boys listen to good music, their enjoyment increases with familiarity until a kind of saturation point is reached; beyond this point the music may lose its freshness and vital appeal and sometimes even become boring.

As a means of securing familiarity, the gramophone has a distinct rôle to play. The teacher is able to repeat any record at will, to suit the taste of any given class; he can answer questions, repeat difficult passages on request, and so on. The wireless lesson has to cater for a multiplicity of standards and tastes and the listener-in has to accept what is offered and cannot ask for encores. The gramophone can be intimately fitted to the needs of any class that is using it.

In order to obtain evidence about how familiarity affects the enjoyment of music, the following experiment was carried out. The effect of the immediate repetition of a record was tested with three groups of boys; a fourth group was asked to assess their enjoyment of delayed repetition, each series of five records being repeated, not immediately, but after a gap of three or four days. After hearing a record, each pupil was asked to record the numerical amount of his enjoyment, according to a table which fixed the maximum enjoyment at plus 5 and passed through 0 to a maximum dislike of minus 5.

At the conclusion of the experiment the effect of familiarity was examined by totalling

all the pupils' scores (in groups) for each (first or second, etc.) performance of all records, and taking the average score for the first performances and comparing it with the average score for each repetition. The averages (maximum plus 5) are as follows:

AVERAGES								
	Number of Pupils.	Age.	1st.	2nd.	3rd.	4th.	5th.	6th.
Group A	19	15	1.29	1.52	1.6	1.63	—	—
Group B	43	14.2	1.56	1.6	1.65	1.74	—	—
Group C	24	12.5	1.57	2.11	2.48	2.84	—	—
Group D ¹	22	13.3	2.81	3.26	3.52	3.63	3.83	3.96

¹ Delayed repetition group.

The scores in every group, for every performance seem to show that enjoyment is definitely increased by repetition.

The increase is usually greatest during the second performance, for both immediate and delayed tests. Groups A and B were asked to listen to a fifth repetition (not given in the table because it included only four of the five records); this time a slight decrease in the enjoyment of several records was indicated, probably because fatigue had commenced. Such fatigue would be less likely to occur in Group D, where it is relieved by variety.

In this connection it may be noted that a comparison of the scores of the delayed repetition group with those of the opposite groups indicates the probability that the 'delayed' method is more effective than immediate repetition in increasing enjoyment. It is true that Group C appears to be somewhat of an exception, but their initial score was low and gave them more opportunity of increase than did that of Group D, which commenced by placing one of the pieces near the maximum. It is quite clear, however, that one immediate repetition of a record will usually be advisable.

The results of the individual records, though

interesting, are not so easily interpreted. They are as follows :

		GROUP A				
		1	Repetitions.			
		2	3	4	5	
Morning—Peer Gynt Suite (Grieg)		2.21	2.5	2.54	2.29	—
Dance of the Sugar Plum Fairy (Tschaikowski)		0.92	0.92	1.0	1.12	0.85
Intermezzo—Cavalleria Rusticana (Mascagni)		2.6	2.88	3.0	3.0	2.9
Memnon (Schubert)		0.77	1.18	1.32	1.45	1.69
Prelude and Fugue in C. Major (Bach)		0.08	0.13	0.17	0.25	0.29

		GROUP B				
		1	Repetitions.			
		2	3	4	5	
Miniature Overture—Nutcracker Suite (Tschaikowski)		1.17	1.38	1.51	1.39	1.51
New World Symphony, First Movement (Dvořák)		0.2	0.24	0.18	0.26	—
Pomp and Circumstance March, Op. 29 (Elgar)		3.62	3.75	3.67	3.85	3.87
Merry Wives of Windsor—Overture (Nicolai)		2.1	2.08	2.08	2.02	2.02
The Trout (Schubert)		0.98	0.89	0.98	1.02	0.94

		GROUP C				
		1	Repetitions.			
		2	3	4	5	
Suite in D Major—Gavotte (Bach)		1.76	2.47	2.93	3.21	—
Jesu, Joy of Man's Desiring (Bach)		1.44	1.68	2.21	2.41	—
Drun Roll Symphony, 1st Movement (Haydn)		1.97	2.3	2.36	2.48	—
Quartet in E Flat, Minuet (Mozart)		1.73	2.21	2.55	3.03	—
Clarinet Concerto, Slow Movement (Mozart)		1.58	2.03	2.33	2.61	—

		GROUP D					
		1	2	Repetitions.			
				3	4	5	6
Marche Militaire (Schubert)		4.23	4.73	4.77	4.64	4.65	4.77
The Unfinished Symphony, 2nd Movement (Schubert)		1.73	2.5	2.82	3.14	3.36	3.41
Love's Garden (Schumann)		1.91	2.5	2.82	3.18	3.27	3.55
Kreutzer Sonata, Finale (Bethoven)		3.05	3.41	3.86	3.64	3.86	3.95
Humoresque (Dvořák)		3.09	3.14	3.41	3.36	4.0	4.09

The main interest of the averages lies in comparing the popularity of individual pieces, though it must be emphasized that an accurate statistical comparison between the scores of the different records of all groups is not possible owing to the differences of average age, general and musical ability, etc., between the groups. Yet a broad comparison may be made, and within each group the comparison

between different records is reasonably accurate. The popularity of such pieces as the March Militaire, Humoresque, Elgar's 'Land of Hope and Glory' March, and the Finale to the Kreutzer Sonata is obvious, while at the opposite end of the list Bach's Prelude and Fugue in C Major are a long way in the rear.

The chief point of this article is, however, to point out the value of repetition, and in this respect the detailed returns show that though the majority of the records have an increased enjoyment effect with repetition, four records are exceptional. They are the Bach Prelude and Fugue, Overture to the Merry Wives of Windsor, the Trout, and the First Movement of the New World Symphony.

There is possibly some significance in the fact that three of these were played to the same group. Some hidden factor present in this particular group of boys may have disturbed the accuracy of the results. In the case of all three records, however, the decrease, if any, is extremely slight.

The steady decline of the Prelude and Fugue seems to show that immediate repetition without explanation of a record which is disliked merely annoys the pupils, especially if the music is so difficult that understanding cannot be created by repetition alone.

The findings of the experiment therefore seem to be that :

- (1) Both delayed and immediate repetition, used in moderation, usually cause increase in enjoyment.
- (2) Increase is usually greatest during the second performance.
- (3) Delayed repetition appears to give a more regular increase than immediate repetition, though there seems to be a distinct case for one immediate repetition of records.
- (4) Unpopular, difficult pieces may register a decline, especially if not explained.
- (5) Pieces of an intricate nature may register no increase during a few repetitions, possibly because of the difficulty of comprehension.

It would seem from the above that neglect of the familiarity factor in the teaching of musical appreciation is nothing less than a major disaster. On the other hand, the proper use of repetition would result in an amazing increase in the love of great music.

The History Wireless Lesson

W. M. Alden

Central Girls' School, Oxford

ONE so often hears the remark, 'I never liked history when I was at school, it was so dry'. And I have personally heard it made most frequently by those who have been through good secondary schools. I myself suffered badly from very dull history lessons in my early days, and only really discovered the fascination of my subject when I began to teach it. What is the reason for such deplorable failure? In the past it has probably been due to dullness of text-books and unenlightened methods of teaching, and in the present day we are still much hampered by the pressure of examinations. There is so little time to sidetrack and adequately illustrate our ordinary routine lessons or even to dramatize in the classroom as occasions present themselves.

The use of the wireless lessons provided by the Central Council for School Broadcasting makes the dry bones of history live, and in conjunction with really sound classroom teaching, the subject should not fail to be interesting—even thrilling and fascinating. Some of the dramatic interludes come over the air so excellently that even without visual aids the classroom can be in imagination peopled with figures of the past, and tense with the personalities of bygone heroes. However efficient the teacher may be it is a sheer impossibility for him to produce this effect by means of verbal illustrations or pictures even though he has the advantage of the personal contact with the children which the microphone lacks.

For example: a twenty minutes' lesson on Henry VIII and Sir Thomas More succeeded in taking those who wished to accompany the broadcaster to More's sixteenth-century garden where in company with the Chancellor and other members of his family they met King Henry himself and listened to an interesting discussion on the New Learning and its accompanying problems. After having mentally covered the lapse of time with the aid of a brief summary from the microphone, the closing episodes of More's life were enacted.

The touching scenes in prison between More and his wife and daughter, the threatening visit of the King's minister, the removal of the scholar's books, all came before them. Different voices of well-chosen actors, noises such as the closing of a door or the heaving of a sigh produced an atmosphere of absolute reality, and not only brought the actual scenes to the classroom but portrayed the attractive character of More in a remarkable way. And, moreover, there was no suggestion of bias in the presentation of a subject out of the Reformation period which can be a very difficult one to teach. Thus the dramatic interlude can, when necessary, eliminate any tendency to dogmatic teaching by representing the actual people and events, but reserving judgment. Those who favour the trend of modern education and wish to train the child in freedom of thought will appreciate this.

This type of lesson and others even more difficult to bring to life in the classroom are at present provided in the two series of talks on World History and British History. Illustrated pamphlets are issued in conjunction with both. They are intended primarily for children in elementary schools and this must be remembered when their scope and language may seem inadequate for secondary school children, but they are too good to be missed by the latter.

There are, of course practical difficulties which present themselves. Most teachers in secondary schools, I imagine, do not feel inclined to interfere with their history syllabus to introduce a wireless lesson regularly, and in matters of time-table regard the microphone as a thief of precious time. And in most cases it is improbable that the broadcast programmes will exactly fit into ready-made schemes. But they can be used as supplementary even if only on occasion, and they serve excellently as revision; and after all, if a period has been sacrificed to a wireless lesson at some cost, and the lesson fails to come up to expectations, one can always switch off. The time-table difficulty

is again a very real one, but not insuperable. It is really a question of whether we consider the broadcasts worth while. And what is the test? First and foremost surely, it is essential to discover whether the child's interest is quickened and whether the children really enjoy the talks. Then, to what extent do the talks stimulate progressive work on the subjects dealt with? Also, is the work of the teacher enriched and the teaching made more effective?

I can only answer from my own experience. After teaching this subject for some long time to girls up to School Certificate standard, I have recently introduced wireless lessons to supplement my five-year syllabus. Without doubt the lessons are thoroughly enjoyed by the children, especially the juniors. A groan invariably meets the announcement that a wireless lesson is for any reason to be cancelled. I have had a class convulsed with merriment over an amusing incident, and even on one occasion, when Socrates drank the fatal hemlock, moved to tears. As to the stimulating effect produced, I have found that the girls enjoy writing up and illustrating their impressions, and, in addition, follow up with independent and voluntary homework. Some of their work shows that they pursue the subjects to the present day extensively, usually on lines suggested by the pamphlets. Then again, since the broadcaster is unknown or at least invisible, their written criticisms of the lessons make enlightening reading for the teacher. In this way some training is given in development of thought and judgment. And I am considerably helped in my part as a history teacher by these beneficial effects. The work is not easier because the B.B.C. takes over some of my lessons—indeed, it is harder in the actual execution of the work because, in addition to preparation for the talks and follow-up work it is essential to keep a watchful eye for the many pitfalls which may arise. Such points as continuity of thought and reasoning, and, in the case of using the lessons to supplement the ordinary syllabus, careful assimilation and co-ordination must be attended to.

So much for the use of wireless talks on the lines of an ordinary syllabus of history; there remains what in my opinion is the most valuable series which is available for boys and girls over

the age of fourteen—I refer to 'History in the Making', which, true to its title, catches outstanding personalities and events as they pass in the world of to-day and shows their importance in the making of history. Surely this is a most satisfying and much desired approach to the adolescent mind which can be appreciated by all history teachers. The series also deals with subjects such as Government, elections, municipal institutions, and such-like every-day affairs, thus constituting quite a good brief course of instruction on citizenship. At present I find that the dialogue is the most popular method, since an argument always appeals. But nevertheless the voices of recognized experts on various topics are always impressive. Lively discussions are provoked, and when one of the talks happens to fall during a half-term holiday, the girls will voluntarily listen in and make notes. This should I feel tend to educate a taste for the more cultural type of wireless talks when they leave school—the Under Twenty Club, for instance.

In conclusion it may be well to wonder whether there is any possible danger involved in the wireless talk. For instance, is it likely that there are many children with so strong a visual memory that the wireless lessons worry them? Given the right handling by the teacher—and the importance of this cannot be too much stressed—there should be very little if any danger of a lesson without visual aid becoming either meaningless or irritating. The average child is so well accustomed to listening in that he accepts the wireless lesson as a matter of course; in fact, the danger rather lies in a tendency to contempt bred by familiarity. But an observant teacher will be ready to supply visual aids if necessity really arises, that is, if the broadcaster fails to establish contact with the class and is too vague as to the presentation of the essential points which are necessary to hold the attention of children. The excellent illustrations in the pamphlets, too, are very helpful as an aid to concentration. Also in most history rooms there are time charts available in order to place the subject correctly in the march of time, or, failing this, an improvised line of time marked to scale will serve equally well if pinned round the wall or even marked on the picture rail. It is

amazing, too, how well a class can be listening when it appears to be doing nothing of the kind. A certain type of child looks completely bored when listening intently to a wireless lesson. No, I think there are few dangers involved. At any rate, children are extraordinarily adaptable—much more so than teachers.

¹DEAR X,

A very dreadful thing has happened. Our dear master, Socrates has been killed! He taught us wisely, and was, I think, the most worthy Greek that ever lived. For, he taught us to think for ourselves.

I do not think that there really is a goddess of beauty at all. If there really is an Andromede, why can't people give us proof. They can't!

I agree with what he taught. Do you remember him teaching us that what our forefathers *said* does not mean that it is true. Why should we believe it?

His end was dreadful. He was judged and condemned to death. These were the judges' reasons. (a) He was leading people into not believing in the gods. (b) He led boys into bad ways.

He was given a choice. He could either leave Athens or die. He chose death. Just imagine him standing up against five hundred judges!

He stayed in prison for over a month. In vain did I plead with him to escape. He said: 'I took the vow that I would obey the laws of Athens when I was a boy. I have broken them so I must die!'

Poor Socrates! He was shabby to the end. He wore naught but the bare necessities of clothing.

He died by drinking hemlock, a deadly poison. His limbs grew heavy and then came the end. I wonder whether his wife was sorrowful over his death. She is a plague of a woman. I have made up my mind never to marry.

His end was a great blow to me.

Yours sorrowfully,

PLATO.

Wireless in an Infants' School

Nellie Mitchell

Headmistress, Birkdale Infants' School, Southport

IN our school at Birkdale most lessons are games. The children know how to play. Energy and 'social' adaptability are the keynotes. The classrooms are decorated in pastel shades; there is plenty of light, fresh air, and space for movement. Colourful pictures and a plentiful supply of toys and equipment—all these help to form an environment which makes children want to come to school. When into this environment I introduced the Broadcasts nearly six years ago, the only section with which young children could make contact was 'Round the Countryside' with the broadcaster and his two playful dogs. Soon the 'Music and Movement' course was introduced and it became at once a part of our music programme and has remained a part ever since. Children trip and dance and skip; or, in imagination pull carts or toss snowballs, or cut down trees, to the rhythm of 'Music and Movement', and the spontaneity and joyousness of their response show that they 'music's power obey'.

Normal healthy children have a well-developed sense of hearing, so the ground is prepared for them to listen fruitfully. Experience has proved that those who plan the school wireless programmes share the aim of the Infant School—the development and training of the child in the fullest sense. During the transitional stage, the wireless 'approach'—adaptable, lively, fresh—became reconciled with existing and established but constantly changing methods of the Infant School. Children in this school were in an environment in which artistic appreciation in music and art, clear speech, standards of taste in design and arrangement, an upright carriage and graceful movement were already established. Into this environment came the wireless, revealing a widening horizon.

The novelty of the voice or music-making from an unseen source soon wears off. The wireless is friendly in its manner. Being acquainted also with wireless in their home environment, the children soon respond to the friendliness which the wireless radiates. The link of school and home to-day (especially the Infant School)—has become a gospel. Everything possible to forge that link and make it

¹ An examination question: 'Pretend to be a friend of Socrates and write a letter to another friend, telling him how and why Socrates died.' This is the answer of a child of eleven, written some weeks after hearing the wireless talk on Socrates; interesting as an indication of how far a child finds wireless lessons memorable and assimilable.

stronger is done. There are innumerable ways—and here is an additional one, the wireless, to our hand. Children and parents listen-in and can talk to each other about it. The home wireless is entertaining and educative. The school wireless has given these infants additional opportunity for expression in movement which, besides developing appreciation of music, is aiding in the development of 'awareness' in children.

There is nothing passive about wireless teaching. Children are alert, and they react and express. The 'Music and Movement' Courses have given to the school something to which the children actually contribute in movement. The Interval pianoforte Music each Friday morning, played by Mr. J. Horton (and affectionately named by our scholars 'Our Little Concerts') has incited the children to natural joyous interpretation of the dance—nursery rhyme, lullaby, carol, as it is played. This year's 'Preparatory Concert Lessons' are proving a brilliant addition to the already excellent musical fare. No really 'unfamiliar' material is used in the Infants' Courses, and a child with a strong visual memory is not worried by the purely auditory appeal of the wireless. Rather does the wireless, by virtue of this strong appeal of the auditory sense, aid the complete sensory training of the child. It is found, too, that the habit of concentration is necessary in this, as in all sections of Infant School activities. The wireless interests the child, he attends in order to express; the more he attends the better, and finally he has learnt to control his attention. Ultimately, right action depends on ability to control thought and the child is able to take his place successfully in the 'social' life of the Infant School and is tempered by an increasing sense of responsibility to that environment. Experience with broadcasts in this Infant School has been confined chiefly to Music during the several years; but Donne's words 'makes one room an everywhere' might well be applied to the wireless. From 'everywhere' is that wireless music drawn and it supplements the already generous musical education the scholars in this school receive.

General interest is quickened. Children can

also join in events of national importance. Incidentally, little boys and girls find it particularly interesting to hear on the school wireless the launching of a great ship, especially if mother or father is listening at home to the same ceremony. Plenty of enjoyment and interest here—but plenty of responsibility, too. Children listen, but they must also express. The wireless lessons have an æsthetic value, a great sense of movement, an interesting educative background, and a natural pleasantness.

There is scope for originality on the part of the child in interpreting the music heard. Preparation and 'follow-up' are practical problems which arise in the course of the broadcast. They are not a ritual. The pamphlets and Handbook deal with them. At my school at Birkdale each of the older infants is supplied with two pamphlets—namely, the 'Music and Movement' booklet, and the Preparatory Concert Pamphlet. The children love them! They enjoy finding out for themselves from the pamphlet what the broadcast will provide for them. The usual musical activities of the school become the natural and best 'follow-up' of the broadcast. Singing, dancing, rhythm, percussion band—all become connecting links with the broadcasts, which are thus merged into the normal music programme of the school. Three months ago a new wireless receiving apparatus was installed in my school, further classrooms were wired and an additional loud speaker installed. This provision of new wireless equipment to replace the old, indicates that wireless receiving sets are now firmly established as part of the normal equipment of schools. They are renewed, when required, along with books and the usual school apparatus.

The broadcast experience at Birkdale Infant School, Southport, has been generously supported by the Southport Education Committee and its Secretary. The wireless is established here and we are investigating further its possibilities and uses as a method. The work of the Central Council for School Broadcasting will maintain its prestige when the epic of broadcasting comes to be written.

Wireless Lessons in the Junior School

F. A. Axford

Headmistress, Earlsmead Junior School

FOR the last five years, Broadcasts have been part of the work of our junior girls' school. They were introduced mainly for the following reasons :

We felt that, whether we like it or not, 'Wireless' is now a part of the life of us all, and that a 'live' school must of necessity realize its place in the education of our future citizens. We feel it is necessary to teach children to listen and to discriminate in their listening, not merely to work or play with a background of noise. This training can be begun in the junior school.

In junior schools there is generally very little specialization, but the teaching of music is a subject which requires a specialist. If there is no such person on the staff, here can be used the Early Stage in Music course, supplemented and illustrated by the Preparatory Concert lessons. With younger children (7 to 8 years) the Music and Movement lessons by Miss Ann Driver can be taken. These are a delight to the little ones who are able to enjoy to the full a lesson brimming over with life and joy, while at the same time they are learning the elements of music.

Then the dramatic interludes in World History make the past live in a way impossible to the class teacher. These lessons, arousing as they do such interest, help to lay the foundation of fact and legend for the more serious history of the post primary school. Travel Talks give us first-hand accounts of travellers' experiences. The teacher could only obtain this information by very wide reading. As in the history course these Travel Talks prepare the way for fuller comprehension of the geography to be studied in later school years.

The subjects we are able to take in our school are full courses in Early Stages in Music, Music and Movement, World History, Travel Talks, selected lessons in British History, Round the Country Side, Junior English and Concert lessons. We listen to those which we can fit into our curriculum. The broadcasts

are fitted into our curriculum, not the latter into the former.

The most serious listening is, of course, for the older girls—those in the last year of the junior school. No class listens to more than two broadcasts per week, and only one of these involves much following-up work. The number in the listening class is also limited. We find that in rooms unduly crowded concentration becomes more difficult. It is only on very special occasions that more than one normal class listens to a particular broadcast.

Now what do we gain from these Broadcasts ? The school as a whole is the richer for them in that it is one way in which the parents of the girls can participate in the actual school work. We encourage them to listen at home and then talk over the subject matter with their children and to offer criticism.

Then by means of the follow-up work which we do in connection mainly with World History, the girls are trained to use the local libraries and museums. At the end of some of the pamphlets are lists of books suitable for children's reading. We encourage the girls to get these books. If they are not to be found in the public library, the librarians will usually try to get them for us. Again, some authorities are fortunate enough to possess a local museum, where the curator is interested in the talks and arranges small exhibitions of pictures and specimens illustrating some of the broadcasts. This is a comparatively recent offshoot of the School Broadcasts and is at present quite small in its way, but it has great potentialities.

The girls themselves are encouraged to collect pictures and illustrations and these they are taught to classify. Note-books are kept, not for a repetition of the broadcast, but for work that develops naturally from the talk. Sometimes the teacher uses the suggestions of the pamphlets and sometimes selects her own follow-up work. This work often involves dramatic work and art. These latter are a very popular branch of the Broadcast lessons.

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With regard to the actual matter broadcast, it is surprising what the girls remember and we have found that some who cannot read well can reproduce quite a number of facts gained from the lesson. But not only do they remember just after the talk, but some are able to refer to them and even reproduce them after a considerable time has elapsed since the broadcast was given. Naturally, like all lessons in school, there are good broadcasts and bad broadcasts. A great deal depends on how the teacher uses these lessons. If they are never referred to again or never used to illustrate or connect up with future work, they gradually recede in the memory but if used intelligently much lasting good can be obtained. Occasionally, and it is very occasionally, we find a girl who is unable to benefit in some way by these lessons. These girls are given their work to do in another room at the time the others are listening. Sometimes these girls will return voluntarily to the lessons and then they appear to be able to follow with the rest of the class. But the problem of the pupil not liking wireless lessons

has not actually arisen although they sometimes dislike particular subjects.

It is interesting to note how much more easily discussion arises after a wireless lesson than after the usual class lesson. This, I think, is due not to the broadcast being so much more provocative, but that the children and teacher combine to criticize a third person—the teacher is a pupil in the class.

These lessons also develop the children's powers of concentration. They have to sit still for about twenty minutes. This in itself is good for them in this restless age. In a junior school, too, it must be a relief to them to hear another voice.

It must not be thought that a broadcast lesson is an easy one for the teacher—quite the reverse, for it is one of the hardest lessons in the time table. As in all school work the success of these junior school broadcasts depends upon the teacher. A good enthusiastic teacher can get something worth while from a bad broadcast, while the best of all broadcasts lose much of their value, at least in the junior school, if the teacher is not enthusiastically in favour of broadcast lessons.

Wireless in a Rural School

Kesgrave Area School, East Suffolk

R. F. Harrison

WE have taken the broadcast lessons given by the B.B.C. in the above school for the past four years and they have now become an integral part of the school curriculum.

We consider school broadcasting to be a very valuable asset in school life. The following are three of the chief reasons :

(1) The children learn to listen. Listening to broadcasts has now become part of everybody's normal daily life and a modern school is, or should be, 'part of life'. In school the child learns to listen intelligently under the guidance of the teacher and has the opportunity to exercise his powers of selection and concentration.

(2) We get background and colour to the History and Geography lessons which it is impossible to obtain in any other way, for example, the noises heard in factories and workshops, on board ship, dramatic interludes, and so on. This gives the teacher valuable new suggestions and develops the power of imagination on the part of the pupil to an extraordinary degree.

(3) In the Senior school we get up-to-date and correct knowledge by specialists who are selected not only for their knowledge but also for their ability to get it across in a dramatic and interesting manner.

How we use the Wireless

The broadcast lessons are distributed through the school beginning with the Infants. Each class gets one lesson a week and the senior classes two lessons a week.

The Infants have Music and Movement every Friday morning. It is a delight to watch the children doing rhythmic movements and simple dances under the direction of Miss Ann Driver. Before trying this in the school I thought that children of from five to seven years of age would be too young to follow the directions of the broadcaster, but to my surprise, so well does it come over, and so

admirably and clearly does Miss Driver give the directions, that the teacher can remain quite passive and it is unnecessary for her to detract attention from the Broadcaster, thus spoiling the spontaneous efforts of the children. I am sure that a sense of rhythm is a very valuable factor in the education of young children and should be exercised in every Infants' school. A large floor space is necessary, so this is taken in the Assembly Hall.

The next class has a similar lesson with exercises suitable for children from 7 to 9 years of age. Notes for the use of the teacher can be obtained and should be used to enable the children to get the best out of the lesson. It is very evident to the onlooker that the children thoroughly enjoy these exercises.

Another broadcast which particularly claims the interest of the Juniors is the Nature Study Lesson. These lessons follow no set syllabus, but week by week naturalists give the children vivid accounts of what they have seen and tell the listeners what to look for on their nature walks. These talks prove very stimulating, and in this school, children on their own initiative have started aquariums and collections of flowers and leaves and keep nature diaries where weekly and sometimes daily observations are recorded. So interesting are these diaries that a Director of Education from Australia visiting the school begged for three copies to take back with him to show the teachers in his district. Some attempt is also made to cater for town-dwelling children in this series.

Closely linked with the above is the course on Rural Science (ages 11 to 14). Here all who love gardening (a natural instinct—Adam was a gardener) get practical hints by an expert gardener and the scientific side is set forth by one of the Principals of the Rothamsted Experimental Station—surely the best the world can give. We make a point of never missing this talk. The lessons are arranged so as to be as seasonable as possible

and must prove to be invaluable to small schools where there is no one on the staff who is skilled in gardening.

In this short article it is impossible to write at length on all the broadcasts we take each week, but I must mention the Biology (11 to 14). All educationists are now agreed that knowledge of the various life processes (including reproduction and development) and the structure and functions of plants and animals should be given to Senior children. Here all the knowledge is put over in a simple and interesting form. To make the most of these lessons the teacher must do some 'following up', giving further explanations where necessary and ascertaining that the lesson has been assimilated.

Our Parish, World History, Regional Geography, British History, Travel Talks, and Topical Talks all find a place in our time-table. All these talks make the dry bones live, stimulate the interest and lift the lessons into the realm of reality. They link up the school work with the outside world.

Teachers who are thinking of introducing wireless talks into the school often ask, 'How far do the children find the wireless lessons memorable?' I do not think we need let this worry us. Obviously you cannot be taught many facts about any subject in a twenty-minutes' talk. What does matter—and what is permanent—is the child's attitude and approach to a subject. This is where the wireless comes in. Children are awakened to the fact that no subject is dull and that all will repay further study and research and that all are part of everyday life. The eyes of the blind are opened.

The difficulties, provided that you have a good receiver, are not many. They are much the same as appertain to all lessons. There will be the same lazy boy in the corner who will let his attention wander, but a short 'follow up' will soon show who have failed to listen carefully and experience shows that these are very few in number.

I think that it is a mistake for the children to try to take notes during the lesson—though the teacher may do so—as the child cannot follow and take notes at the same time and the interest may be impaired by the thread of

the story being broken. But in most cases the children have note books for each subject and write their notes immediately after the broadcast. We also carry out any further work suggested by the pamphlets.

We find that there is really no difficulty about fitting the wireless talks to the school syllabus as there are so many broadcasts to choose from that something is sure to coincide somewhere; the only difficulty is the timetable, and this is easily overcome by rearrangement. The B.B.C. take every precaution to see that the lessons are suitable to the ages of the children for whom they are intended, and after each broadcast a selected number of teachers report to the B.B.C. by post taking special notice of quantity of material and speed of the broadcaster.

It is very essential that a good receiving set should be used or disappointment will follow. We begun with an inferior set and listening was difficult and too much of an effort. We now have a five-valve set which we move from classroom to classroom as required, together with a portable aerial on a frame, which we constructed in school. This set also has a gramophone pickup and is used for reproducing records for folk-dancing.

It is not sufficiently well known that the B.B.C. will give advice on the choice of sets and methods of installation free of charge. Advisory engineers will also visit listening schools where any difficulties are encountered. As the Board of Education and the Local Authorities now recognize the important part that the wireless plays in Elementary Education there is usually no difficulty in requisitioning a good receiving set and taking full advantage of all the opportunities provided for broadening the outlook of the scholars.

In my opinion broadcasting will be used much more extensively in the future. There are still some teachers who are prejudiced against it and think that time so used is wasted. This is probably due to the fact that they are labouring under the mistaken impression that the wireless takes the place of the teacher whereas it should be used to supplement his work, adding an atmosphere that he cannot give.

As broadcasting to schools is still in its infancy the question arises, 'Do we make the

most effective use of it? Have we yet developed the right technique?

No hard and fast rules can be laid down. Each teacher must meet his own requirements in his own way, breaking the ground and giving such preparation to the class where he considers it necessary for a better understanding of the subject matter to be broadcast.

Opinion appears to be divided about the 'follow up'. It is certainly very useful sometimes, even essential. At other times, where the broadcast is complete in itself the enjoyment of the impression created is marred by over-emphasis on the part of the too zealous teacher.

Obviously the teacher must correlate the talks to his curriculum and select the broadcasts most suitable to his needs. After all, wireless lessons are made for the schools and not the schools for the wireless.

Intelligently used, and not too frequently, we find that the talks have been of the utmost value to us and neither teacher nor children would now like to be deprived of them. Let any who are sceptical about the value of wireless talks in school make a small beginning, using it as described above, and I venture to prophesy that in due time they will be making full use of the service offered.

Broadcasts for the Adolescent

BROADCASTING did not, until very recently, make any provision for the educational needs of the adolescent who had left school at the age of fourteen. The evening programmes contained only material for adults, and though possibly simple enough in vocabulary and expression, they demanded a background of experience which the adolescent could not possess. An attempt was made some four years ago to produce a series of talks that would combine entertainment with a modicum of information, but the experiment was discontinued after a short time.

For the adolescent still at school something *was* done. The Central Council for School Broadcasting was well aware of the need for material which would serve as a gangway between school and the world. The talks 'History in the Making' in which world affairs and contemporary problems were expounded for the schools, were invaluable for the 'Leavers' of the Senior School, and for the upper middle of secondary schools. For the older secondary pupils there were the Sixth Form Talks, to some extent carrying on the principle of 'History in the Making', but adding to it an acquaintance with great men and women, and an introduction to intellectual as well as political movements. In addition to talks on foreign affairs by Sir Frederick Whyte and Mr. Vernon Bartlett the schools could hear Mr. J. B. S. Haldane on Science, or Mr. George Bernard Shaw on himself.

Since the inception of these talks the manner of presentation has been slightly modified. In place of the single talks have grown up short weekly series on related subjects. For three successive weeks there might be talks on English, Scottish, and Irish literature respectively, followed perhaps by three biographies of famous men and women. After this might come a short series on Greek Philosophy, or talks on colonial problems. Whatever the changes of form the material has always been of the same type, intended to introduce the adolescent to great men and their works, or give them a knowledge of contemporary movements and events.

Some schools have made even greater use of wireless in the task of widening the interests of the adolescents still at school. Older pupils have been recommended to listen at home to some of the adult evening talks, designed with the needs of Wireless Discussion Groups in mind. On the following day the pupils have met for a short time, set apart in school hours, for a brief discussion of the subject. In one school at least the group chose a recorder before the discussion, who then gave a summary of their conclusions at the Friday morning assembly. In that particular school I found that the students had, of their own volition, done some excellent illustrations and maps, to back up their oral exercises. Quite distinct from the immediate benefits of this kind of work is the training it is undoubtedly giving

the pupils in critical thoughtful listening, as necessary to the present generation as was a training in critical reading to the last generation.

Many schools have made similar experiments with considerable success, in spite of the 'adult' presentation of the broadcast material. Only schools, with trained teachers, dealing with older pupils of a high standard, could successfully do so. The greater part of the adolescent group, made up of those who left school at 14 was being neglected. What were the needs of this group?

Let us consider the 14-year-old school leaver. He may continue his education at night school: he may, like many of his comrades, stop short, firmly resolved never to set foot again in a schoolroom. This latter section was the one which had most need of help, and it was with them in mind that the B.B.C. planned the broadcasts to adolescents. It had to be remembered that listening would be voluntary, and the programmes must, therefore, entertain. The average adolescent has no objection to learning things; in fact he likes to know how the machine works, but he will not listen to a dull programme because it does him good. There is the first consideration. The subjects of the talks would obviously not be academic. Such needs could be satisfied in the evening schools. The social and political problems already confronting the adolescent were of far more importance, and these were problems which he would soon have to face as a citizen.

The youngster would naturally be bored by an unrelieved talk of half an hour on such subjects. Remembering the first condition of 'entertainment' it was essential to find a vivid and fresh presentation, allowing of clear exposition. In adolescent clubs themselves speakers on serious subjects could hold their audience. The members, who would shy immediately at any suggestion of a 'class', would gladly listen to men who could talk to them about the affairs of the world. There should then be no reason for their refusing to listen to a visiting speaker who came 'over the air'. One important difference was, however, that they could question the speaker who came in person, and make him explain his points to their satisfaction. The broadcasters,

then, had to have a small studio audience, to ask questions and discuss problems, just as would be the case in a normal club.

So was conceived the broadcast series for adolescents now known as 'The Under Twenty Club'. The members of the studio club are drawn from all parts of the country, and from all kinds of trade and profession; their only essential qualifications are that they should be intelligent 'under-twenties', able to express themselves clearly. Each week the club meets in the studio to hear a guest speaker, ask him the questions of youth, and discuss his views with the fiery partiality of youth. The membership varies from week to week, as it is the aim to have represented as many points of view as possible. To keep some continuity, and to ensure balance of question and discussion, there is a permanent adult chairman, Mr. Howard Marshall. His tact and understanding and his friendly personality are important elements in the freshness and ease of the programmes.

At the 'listening end' the problem was simplified, once the shape of the broadcasts was established. Groups of young people could listen together. At the end of the broadcast they could carry on the discussion for themselves, on the basis of the information received from the adult speaker, clarified by the comments and questions of the 'Under-Twenties' in the Studio. Following the tradition of established adult education they could 'learn through discussion'.

The groups of young listeners to the 'Under Twenty Club' are infinite in their variety. Most of them are centred in some kind of youth organisation, using this club-listening as one of their activities. The most successful are guided by an adult leader, who keeps his members to the point, and encourages that general co-operation which is the group discussion ideal. Yet there are groups of 'Under-Twenties' who listen happily without such help, and themselves take turns in acting as chairman and controlling the meeting. Between the groups there is naturally considerable variation in standard, since the original material of the broadcast can be made more valuable in proportion to the amount of help that the leader can give. Yet all of

them, in varying degree, serve the original purpose of introducing the adolescent to men and matters that he might otherwise miss.

That the broadcasts are changing and modifying their methods is natural, and since the inception of the series there has been one particularly interesting development. More and more the discussion of the members of the studio 'club' has grown in importance. The guest speaker is still present, and makes his contribution, but he has not quite the place that he enjoyed at first. He is present now rather as a referee than as a speaker. Whether this change is beneficial may be doubted. I have no doubts on the matter. The amount of information that the average adolescent can assimilate in half an hour is strictly limited, and that amount can probably be given clearly by the speaker in fifteen minutes, allowing the rest of the half-hour broadcast for the questions and discussion of the adolescent club members. This increase in the discussion means that the listeners are not only getting the views and knowledge of the adult, but are also hearing the opinions of their contemporaries. Since the young broadcasters are gathered from the mines, the factories, the counter, and the warehouse, from day schools, boarding schools, and universities, their opinions are cross-sections of the adolescent opinion of the country. Their judgments may be hasty and unbalanced, but held up against the experience of the

Chairman and the visiting speaker they are put into proportion. That in itself is an educational influence for the listening clubs in the provinces.

So far only the informal use of this series has been considered. Alongside the voluntary youth organisations some Local Education Authorities have found it useful in more formal evening classes. The tendency to 'humanise' evening school instruction has created a need for aids to that end. The lively presentation and stimulating material of these adolescent broadcasts has therefore been pressed into service in English classes, and Current Events courses under the guidance of expert teachers. For the purpose of both oral and written expression work it is proving very valuable.

Whatever may be the final form of these broadcasts, and whatever may be their place in adolescent education, they have shown that there is a large, eager young audience ready to seize this link with the world. Probably the greatest part of that audience still consists of individual listeners, who profit from the programmes in some measure, but have not yet enjoyed the pleasure and values of group discussion. The broadcasts are important if they can aid the more formal work of the evening school, but even more important is their informal use, if they can stimulate the intellect of the adolescent who has cut himself off from other kinds of further education.

Fellowship News

REFUGEES

Posts are wanted in families with children by women experienced in child care—some can undertake housekeeping as well. Families are urgently needed who are willing to wait the eight weeks usually necessary to get a permit for one of these women. It should be noted that no obligation rests on the employer. If after a time the employee is found to be unsuitable it is perfectly permissible for her to find another post.

Two women, both 42, with Froebel training and experience, are at present on the Fellowship's list; also young woman, Czecho-Slovakian, Roman Catholic, kindergarten trained, massage, needlework, can drive car; also Art Master from Viennese Realschule (secondary school).

International Headquarters, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

Anyone interested should write to Miss Soper at N.E.F. Headquarters.

Schools are still not allowed to employ domestics from abroad.

Training Wanted.—Will any schools with Training departments offer to train young refugees for domestic or nursery-governess work?

Schools and Holidays.—Are there any more schools willing to take refugee children at reduced fees or in some cases free? School needed for boy of 14 whose mother has a domestic post. Offers for the holidays would also be welcome.

ARGENTINA

Members will be pleased to learn that Senor Lorenzo Luzuriaga, who edited our Spanish maga-

zine, *Revista de Pedagogía*, before the present war, has been appointed Professor of Education at the National University of Tucuman, Argentine. He hopes to resume the publication of an educational magazine in the Argentine. Our best wishes go with him and his family.

AUSTRALIAN CONFERENCE REPORT

Education for Complete Living (700 pp.), the Report of the Australian N.E.F. Conference, is now available. It is edited by Dr. K. S. Cunningham, assisted by Mr. W. C. Radford, and published by the Melbourne University Press. Price 10/-, postage 6d. A review will appear in a later issue of *The New Era*.

CANADA AND U.S.A.

The P.E.A. and the Canadian Section of the N.E.F. co-operated with the Hamilton Public Schools in a one-day Conference at Hamilton, Ontario, and also held a joint two-day Conference at Windsor, Ontario, in November. Leading educationists from both countries took part.

CHINA

In acknowledging the money collected by the N.E.F. for the work of the National Child Education Association, the Chinese Education Officer for Shanghai writes that the Association has succeeded in greatly reducing the number of refugees. Rehabilitation work has been set on foot, many have been sent back to their homes, and others given employment. One interesting development is the establishment of a toy factory, which is being swamped with orders. Ten schools have been organized for 500 newspaper boys, who are taking the advantage of training in the rudiments of knowledge seriously.

DUTCH EAST INDIES and the N.E.F.

In December some thirty educationists met in Batavia to hear Mr. P. Post (Inspector of Education), who had just returned from a trip to Europe. He spoke of the aims of the N.E.F. and the valuable help that could be derived from linking up with the world-wide movement of New Education. The outcome of the meeting was a decision to form an N.E.F. group and apply for recognition as a Section. About 40 persons joined at once, including not only teachers and educational administrators, but also a number of fathers and mothers. Mr. Post was elected President, and a committee was formed. Mr. Post intends to lecture in other parts of Java, and expects that a very considerable membership will shortly be enrolled. The Dutch East Indies, with a population of nearly 60 millions and with about 25,000 schools, have very particular problems of their own, arising out of great differences of race, language, culture, social structure and economic development. Our fellow-members there will have a definite contribution to make from their special experience to our common fund of knowledge.

We welcome them most warmly and wish them every success. We hope that their suggestion of an international conference in Java next year, or perhaps a visit from an international delegation, may prove possible of realization.

NEW SWISS SCHOOL

A school for children from 4 to 13 has been started in the Bernese Oberland on New Education principles. It is of special interest to the N.E.F. because one of the Principals is the daughter of our old friend, Professor Katzaroff. Many members who were at Cheltenham will remember her. She has married recently and it is she and her husband who have started this new school. It is situated 1,100 metres above sea-level in glorious country and aims at providing a sound education on modern lines in a happy family atmosphere. Children are also received for the holidays. Address: M. and Mme. Eynard, 'Tournesol', Home d'éducation nouvelle, Gstaad, Oberland bernois, Switzerland.

UNITED STATES

The Progressive Education Association held its National Conference in Detroit, on February 22nd to 25th. The theme was *Progressive Education in Action*. Three other educational bodies joined in the Conference, and many educators from Canada attended. A feature was the opportunity to visit outstanding educational institutions on both sides of the border.

HEADQUARTERS N.E.F.

European Summer Conference

It has now been arranged that a European Conference of the New Education Fellowship will be held in Paris on August 3rd to 9th. The theme will be *Teachers and the Defence of the Democratic Ideal*. The Conference will be organized by the French Section in co-operation with International Headquarters. Further details will be issued later.

International Teas

Headquarters are hoping to restart the International Teas, which gave an opportunity of meeting to English members and those from overseas who happened to be in the country. They are to be held monthly instead of weekly. Details will be sent to members shortly.

LETTER TO THE EDITOR

EDRADOUR,
DALMUIR,
GLASGOW,

DEAR MADAM,

When I read the student's review of her Nursery School Training in the December number I thought it was a very good article and an important contribution because it gave the point of view of a

student. Students have their obvious limitations, but it is always worth taking account of what they have to say, especially when it is said as nicely and competently as your contributor put her view.

After reading the comments on the article in the January *New Era* I read it again, and would like to say that it seems to me that so far as her own college is concerned the article reads true. It looks as if there were one college at least in which (a) the nursery school deals with too big numbers ; (b) tiny

tots are slapped so frequently that students get into the way of slapping them ; (c) intelligent students are subjected to a discipline which makes them unhappy. The student may or may not be right in her judgments. If instead of protesting against a quite legitimate expression of a student's views the protesters would consider seriously the possibility of ensuring that there was no ground for criticism they would be doing a real service to the Nursery School movement.

Yours sincerely,
WM. BOYD.

The Spens Report

(The Report of the Consultative Committee on **SECONDARY EDUCATION** with special reference to Grammar Schools and Technical High Schools. H.M. Stationery Office, 3/6 net.)

H. G. Stead

THE New Education Fellowship has, with increasing insistence during the last decade, stressed the urgency of the need for the democracies to find the answer in the sphere of education to the challenge of the totalitarian states. It is inevitable that a Report which reviews the history of secondary education in this country and which makes recommendations for its future development must be considered and evaluated by the extent to which its findings are directed towards this end.

For men to live together in communities two abilities are essential—the ability to make and the ability to regulate. Modern society has largely solved this first problem owing to the discoveries of modern science and the inventions based upon them. But the second task, that of regulating the contacts of individuals and groups, still perplexes modern man. Hence it is that there is to be found at one and the same time in societies a sense of power and a sense of frustration. The ability to make all the goods necessary for complete and happy living gives to men a sense of power ; their inability to regulate their relationships satisfactorily, either as individuals or as groups, leaves them with a feeling of frustration.

It is obviously important to decide upon the pattern of the regulative forces in society, for upon these will depend the nature of the society. It is here that there is complete opposition between the totalitarian and the democratic societies. And this contrast reveals itself in all the institutions set up by the conflicting forms of society, and in no institution is it more obvious than in that of the state system of education. Any institution is bound to reflect the motives of the society by which it is set up.

The first chapter of the Report gives a most valuable sketch of the development of the traditional curriculum in the different existing types of secondary schools in England and Wales. It is shown how this curriculum, originating in the requirements of adult life, has, during the last hundred years, come to be viewed as having virtues for its own sake,

Education Officer, Chesterfield

with the result that there has been an increasing gap between the school and society. The argument might be pushed a little further. The three systems of education which exist in this country—the Public School system, the Secondary School system, and the Elementary School system—find their origin in the three social classes of the Middle Ages. For *those who ruled* was the Public School system, with social manners and courage as its special virtues (later was admitted intellectual speculation, but speculation divorced from action). *Those who prayed* gradually assumed the administrative and educational work of the community. Latin and mathematics became the staple part of the curriculum of their schools, and interpretation (as opposed to creation) their main function. From this source came the Secondary Schools. For *those who worked* remained the practical education of the apprentice and subsequently the Elementary School system.

It is true that all forms of secondary education took their rise in the need for preparation for various functions in adult life. What is too often overlooked (and what the Spens Report overlooks) is that it is the economic reward of the work carried out in after life which determines the status of the school preparing for it. The present Report advocates the fusion of two of the existing educational systems in England—the elementary and the secondary. It leaves the Public School system outside the national scheme. This is interesting when compared with the development of 'Schools for Leaders' in Germany as the peak of the Nazi system.

The Report visualises an elementary stage of education lasting until eleven plus and followed by a secondary stage lasting until sixteen for all pupils and until eighteen for some. This secondary stage is to be catered for by three types of schools ; Grammar (existing Secondary) Schools ; Technical High Schools (a new type of school providing a five year course from eleven plus to sixteen plus and organized as departments of existing Technical Colleges) ; and the Modern Schools for children of

eleven plus which are being set up in the progress of Hadow reorganization. The Committee suggests that there should be a common code of regulations for these three types of schools and parity in respect of staffing, accommodation and equipment. The transfer examination at eleven plus is to remain and is to be the basis for the decision as to which type of school any child shall attend. But there are two significant loopholes. It is argued that the transfer examination will select definitely two groups :

- (a) those who quite certainly ought to receive a 'Grammar School' education, and
- (b) those who most certainly ought not to.

Fifty per cent. of the places at Grammar Schools are to be awarded on the results of the examination, and the remaining fifty per cent. by an alternative method 'in which facts other than their relative place as determined by the examination are brought into account'. Everyone is by this time convinced of the evil results of the competitive examination at the age of eleven plus on the development of Junior Schools. The suggested scheme retains the competitive examination for fifty per cent. of the entrants and removes it for the other fifty per cent. The additional factors to be considered in the case of this second fifty per cent. are 'quality of character and personality' and ability to give something to the school as well as obtain something from it. This all sounds very desirable, but in operation the system would have to be watched very carefully. This is particularly so in view of the later statement that 'a special place examination on the present lines is better suited as a test of children educated in public elementary schools than of children who have received some other form of primary education'. If the examination can be dispensed with for those fortunate children 'who have received some other form of primary education', why must it be retained for those in the Elementary Schools? More than ever it becomes apparent that the only rational scheme is to provide places for all those children who have the ability to profit by the education provided. And equally obviously eleven is too early an age at which to discriminate and at which to decide the economic and social fate of children. In fact the Report recognizes this in a peculiar way. The curricula of the three types of Secondary Schools are to be the same until the age of thirteen plus is reached in order that at that age transfers from Modern Schools to Grammar Schools can be made. One is almost tempted to ask why there is any need for the original segregation at eleven plus. Why not defer classification to thirteen plus? Is it because eleven plus is the only age (at present) which makes possible the modern senior school? Is it that up to the age of eleven plus we cram into the elementary school child what children in 'other forms of primary education' taken more leisurely? And do we try to cram into the years between eleven and fourteen what can only be *learned* between the years of thirteen and sixteen? The question of ages and types of education is by no means solved.

Nor, in spite of the recommendations of the Committee, is the question of multi-bias schools disposed of. Many will feel that eleven plus is too early an age to begin to direct a child's mind into one channel. Although everyone will agree with Bacon that 'knowledge which hath a tendency to use' is the kind of knowledge which the citizen of a democratic state needs, not everyone will agree that this means training in technical ability alone or mainly. There is an urgent need for technicians it is true; for they can capitalise for society the discoveries of physical science. But these technicians must have, too, a developed social sense—the will to use their power beneficially. The new Technical High Schools will tend to make more rigid the line of demarcation between the 'academic' and the practical. The development of such work within the framework of existing Secondary Schools would have widened the curriculum and outlook of such schools. It seems dangerous to bring children at the age of eleven plus into contact with the highly-specialised atmosphere of the Technical College.

The administrative proposals of the Report will inevitably arouse discussion. The Report suggests that the problem of areas of educational administration should be remitted to a Departmental or Inter-Departmental Committee. It has become increasingly obvious during the last decade that sooner or later this problem will have to be tackled. It is not merely one of small areas or large ones; nor can it be solved by a process of absorption of the smaller areas by the larger ones. In fact it is in some of the smaller areas that most has been done towards reorganizing the educational system. But if there is to be one system of Secondary Education and if all schools within that system are to be equal in status, unity of administration is essential.

Apart from its recommendations the Report is a noteworthy and valuable educational document. The value of the introductory chapter on the history of the curriculum has already been indicated. The chapter on the physical and mental characteristics of children between eleven plus and sixteen plus is one which is deserving of careful study. So is the chapter on the curriculum of the Grammar School. It is to be hoped that the whole Report will be read with the care it merits and that it will be paid the compliment of rational criticism rather than unreasoning acceptance. The collective educational wisdom of the consultative committee is perhaps overwhelming. But the members do not claim omniscience, nor do they pose as educational dictators. The labours of the committee can be best rewarded by a thorough scrutiny of the implications of their recommendations. And the ultimate question is not whether the recommendations, if implemented, will enable us to compete technically with rivals, but whether they will enable us to co-operate with our fellows in building a society in which *making* is for human happiness, and regulation for the good of all.

Book Reviews

Manhood in the Making. Edited by T. F. Coade. (Peter Davies. 10/6.)

This book represents a splendid conception of the editor only partially realized by his collaborators. But with all the imperfections inseparable from bringing together so wide a group of contributors it is one of the best of recent attempts to review the process of education from childhood to maturity. What is Man? What is Childhood? What is Adolescence? What is Manhood? What is Maturity? and 'What are the conditions essential to one stage if we are to expect orderly development and expansion in each succeeding stage?' These are the questions it sets out to answer. The first section of the volume deals with the material—the body, the emotions, the mind, the spirit; the second is devoted to the makers—parents, teachers; the last to the making—public school, secondary school, the co-educational school, vocational guidance. The ground plan is good. Dr. Cawadias writes an interesting account of the physical development of man, but it is marred by the unfortunate assumption that most boys pass through public school and university. We would like to see more recognition of the fact that most boys don't. Nevertheless, he makes observations of importance to teachers and parents. We are warned against forcing the pace at the school in the 7-12 stage and that 'good posture and the development of harmony and precision in movement' are the essentials of physical education in these juvenile years. It is difficult to follow his argument that power for creative work is best stimulated by the competitive spirit.

Dr. Oswald Schwartz makes an outstanding contribution to the study of personality. It fulfills the editor's purpose, I believe, more than any other contribution. 'Normality' is his theme: 'an individual is normal if he achieves the essential aim of life . . . to love and to do creative work is to accomplish the aim of life'. He answers a problem that has always puzzled the teacher of adolescents—Why does the early promise of artistic creation in the child of 10-12 disappear so frequently in the boy of 15? Dr. Schwartz says it disappears, 'and rightly so', because skill and interest in manipulating material are transformed into a sense for quality—'the adolescent does not merely wish to make something, he wants to make something really well'. Throughout the whole of Dr. Schwartz's essay there runs a most satisfying combination of sanity and expert opinion.

Mr. Coade's essay on 'Maturity', modestly placed in the centre of the book, appeals for faith as well as reason as a basis for democratic thinking, and for responsiveness and love as the ends of education; Love is 'a steady emotional energy directed by the will towards fellowship'. Most of us will look back upon failures in our own responsiveness 'when a boy holds out, as it were, a kind of "feeler" blindly

searching for something to grip on to'. Our response should not be a 'big brother' sympathy but a 'responsible job'. This job is not forthcoming as often as it should be. Mr. Coade distinguishes between adulthood and maturity: the mature man's maturity consists in 'his acceptance of complete vulnerability . . . reserving as inviolable only the direct relationship of his individual soul with God'.

Parents are dealt with by Mr. A. S. Neil only as Mr. A. S. Neil could deal with them; and Mr. Graham Howe says some valuable and some less valuable things to teachers. In an informative essay on the public schools the late headmaster of Sedburgh holds the balance between the old and the new. Although he remains in the old camp where fagging is concerned his ideal school would be a good place to live in. The problems of the day secondary school received experienced treatment. Coming towards the end of a book whose background, one feels throughout, is that of the boarding school, this chapter exerts a salutary jerk on our complacency. After all, it is in the vast area of state elementary and secondary education that our civilization will be saved and there is not enough in the book specifically directed to this fact. But it is still true that freedom to experiment in the comparatively ideal conditions of the independent school is a condition of progress in national education. This book will be helpful to all who are interested in that progress.

E. B. Castle

Public Schools and British Opinion, 1780 to 1860. By Edward C. Mack. (Methuen & Co. 15/-.)

The weakness of histories of education is that they generally treat their subject, whether it be institutions or ideas, in artificial isolation. The 'causes' of events are sought in persons and ideas. There is little serious attempt to relate them to social, economic, and political circumstances. This is particularly unfortunate in the case of English institutions, which have rarely resulted from a plan based on a clear idea. The growth of the Public School system, as Dr. Mack says, 'has been inextricably linked with the development of British civilization. Influences other than those of a purely educational nature have governed its evolution more directly and obviously than they have most other educational systems. Indeed, one can view Public School history as a case study of British psychology and of the economic and other pressures to which it has been subjected in the last two hundred years.'

An attempt to write their history in this way has long been overdue. That it should now be done by an American has many advantages. Dr. Mack, as an outsider, has seen the game more fairly and objectively than is possible for those who have played it, and either worship it or revolt against it. Although he must have found much to arouse his

astonishment, perhaps derision, he handles the subject with a respect which Englishmen might try to equal when they discuss American institutions. His treatment of Dr. Arnold, for instance, is a discriminating corrective to both *Tom Brown's Schooldays* and Lytton Strachey.

To his admirable sense of proportion he joins knowledge so great that there can be few Englishmen who would not be the wiser for reading this book. In particular he has ransacked the general literature of the country, including memoirs and letters, to bring out the attitudes to Public School education, the criticisms and defences made, at different dates. The parallels which emerge between educational and politico-economic developments are exceedingly instructive.

In this first volume he confines himself on the whole to the seven schools which before 1840 were the only ones that could properly be called 'Public Schools'. How late their development as a distinct type was will come as a surprise to many readers; in fact the early part of the book is, strictly speaking, the story of schools which became Public Schools much later. This volume closes at 1860, when mid-Victorian criticism came to a head and the second great batch of Public Schools was in process of foundation. We shall look forward to the second volume, which is to bring the story down to the present time.

V. Ogilvie

Your Life's Work. By Dr. E. D. Laborde, *Careers Master at Harrow.* (Thornton and Butterworth. 5/-.)

This is an admirable and much-wanted book. Careers Masters, in particular, will welcome it and will hope that it will be read by parents, especially those who are beset by the worrying problem of their son's choice of career. Dr. Laborde has taken a much broader view of a boy's preparation for life in the matter of education and development of aim than have most books on this subject. He makes, at the outset, the very pertinent point that the Careers Master can only work on the material as it is shaped when presented to him and that the parent really assumes the more important rôle in the problem play, 'The Choice of a Career'. First by providing as settled a home (as is possible under modern conditions), where a child may be helped to fashion for himself a yard-stick of ideals and absorb a balanced outlook and a wholesome aim in life; not, perhaps, the comfort of an adequate salary nor the desire for high degree, but a realisation of the happiness which may come from an aim which transcends the mere fulfilment of duty.

Although the tone of his book is idealistic in this sense, Dr. Laborde is by no means 'high-flown' in his ideas; he gives us a whole heap of good sense in the matter of the way in which the problem of choice of career and then the preparation for it may be made.

In his analysis of types of callings, he indicates several well-reasoned paths by which the parent and boy may approach the final decision; by

choosing the safe career for the studious introvert who prefers to bury himself in his work or the speculative one for the adaptable optimist. I like particularly his new division into open-air, office, and *urban* careers, in which latter he discloses the solution to the much-debated problem of why one meets stockbrokers at race meetings when one might expect them to be at work on the Stock Exchange. As I indicated, he is practical: a high initial salary may mean a dead-end job; a pension represents a dividend on a very considerable sum; intellectual boys are apt to delay their decision until the second year at university because they feel the need for further experience. And about artistic careers: 'With your voice you ought to sweep the Town; Listen, there's a whole lot of people sweeping the Town'.

He closes with subtlety: the parents' suggestions, encouragement and advice will be of assistance in direct inverse proportion to the absence of *fuss* shewn in offering them. And wisdom: A pleasant occupation is really 'Real Wages', even according to the economists.

H. E. R.

The School Looks At Life. *An experiment in social education.* J. E. Strachan. (Oxford University Press.)

In 1917 Mr. Strachan became Headmaster of a small rural High School in Rangiora, New Zealand. The Board of Governors gave him permission to overhaul the existing curriculum. *The School Looks at Life* is a report on the consequences.

In the first part of the book, the author has some wise things to say about the function of the school in society. Education is concerned with the welfare of the child. The welfare of the child depends on 'his ability to adjust himself to a rapidly-changing world and to take his share in the control of his environment'. Therefore the school must become 'the house of the interpreter' and the curriculum a means of bringing the child into contact with those primary human activities that are directed towards survival and self-fulfilment. For if he is to be truly happy he must be prepared to take his place as a thinking unit in the newly-emerging social order.

Those who are interested in the development of rural education in England (the Cambridgeshire Village College scheme, for example) will find much that is of value in the second part of the report. Here we are shown how these fundamental theories of education may be worked out in the curriculum of a rural school. Surveys of various aspects of rural life, together with practical work on farming projects bridge the old gap between the school and society. The child is brought into contact with his own community and gains in knowledge and experience.

And the results of twenty years' work? Mr. Strachan is humble, as all good teachers must be. He recognises that no scheme of education can be static. Therein lies the virtue of his experiment.

Ellen Evans

ST. CHRISTOPHER SCHOOL, LETCHWORTH

Those who would like to know about the educational way of life which is being developed by this community of some 240 boys and girls and 40 adults are invited to communicate with the Principals.

HURTWOOD SCHOOL

Peaslake

Nr. Guildford

Co-educational from 3 years.

Modern building equipped for children in beautiful and healthy surroundings. The school aims at a high standard of scholarship in addition to health and happiness.

It wishes to attain a constructively progressive outlook without reaction, and believes that this can be done where tolerance is based upon sound knowledge and understanding.

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JANET JEWSON, M.A., N.F.U.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Schools for Leaders in Nazi Germany

Adrian J. Smuts

Cape Town, South Africa

EVERY aspect of social and political life in modern Germany is based on the *Führerschaft* idea. No longer shall every man have equal say. He who by blood, personal qualities, training, and experience has proved himself to be a leader has the sole right of deciding what those below him shall do. Such a leader, in theory at least, is no dictator. His power lies in the ability to inspire confidence and to lead those below him in doing what is best for the whole group. The leader, in other words, must incorporate all the thoughts, aspirations, and desires of all the members of the group. As Adolf Hitler says of himself: 'Out of the people I have grown—in the people I have remained—to the people I return.' One will must dominate, one unity must be created, one discipline must bind together, in order that the nation may be one. This, at any rate, is the way the Germans approach their national destiny.

Germany realizes full well that if such a *régime* is to continue young leaders must be trained to carry on. To this end it is preparing its youth. While democratic countries are therefore spending a great deal of time and money on special education for the backward, Germany is making great efforts to select and train its future leaders. One way in which this is being done is by means of some fourteen special National Political Schools, to which only the élite among the youth have entry. These boys, in the words of the official decree, must

be healthy in body, pure in race, clean in character, and mentally above the average.

The Selection of Pupils

It is only after a severe test at the age of ten that bright pupils, who are also healthy in body and social attitude, are admitted to the ordinary secondary schools. Candidates for the special Political Secondary Schools are therefore the elect of the elect. Not only must they prove themselves fit to live with select men and boys in special boarding schools for a period of eight years, but their parents must be of a thoroughly reliable stock, and must already have shown that they will prove worthy guardians of future leaders. Fees are charged, on an average some 50 R.M. per month, but poor parents pay only in terms of their income.

When a young applicant has been accepted as a possible pupil of the school, he goes to live there for a week. Every morning he has class examinations, particularly in German and arithmetic. In the afternoon he takes part in sport. Here he is put to some rather severe tests. It is not so much exceptional ability that is wanted, but if a youngster shows the slightest 'yellow streak' in going round a difficult obstacle course, for example, he has no chance of admission. The teachers are particularly on the watch to see whether the youngster will be a good comrade and will be able to fit into the hard and disciplined life of the school. Should a pupil dislike the life or

prove moody, the Director of the School, who has sole say as to who shall be admitted, advises the parents to take the boy away in his own interest. At the end of the first week the final selection is made, but then only for a trial period of six months. Even after this trial period every pupil must still continually prove his ability in every aspect of school life—whether it be essay writing or gymnastics, biology or cycling, history or horseback-riding. If he is not able to keep up with the increasing demands on his mental and physical resources, he may have to leave the school for some other secondary school. Improper conduct means instant dismissal. Any form of punishment is very rare indeed. This is understandable in an atmosphere where the enthusiasm for work and play amongst these tough youngsters is comparable only to the blast from an open furnace.

The Programme of Work

With one or two exceptions, all these schools do the same work as the new German *Oberschulen*, with perhaps a little more emphasis on the sciences. This means that every pupil in every one of the eight years of secondary education takes German, history, geography, religion, drawing and manual arts, music, biology, English, and physics, chemistry, and Latin in the upper classes. Special attention is given to every aspect of physical education. The day begins at six o'clock with twenty minutes of very vigorous exercise in the open air. Besides a daily gymnastic period in school hours, every pupil learns to box, ride, ski, row, sail, glide, motor cycle, skate, and dance in addition to participation in such team games as football and hockey. Every pupil is, *ipso facto*, also a member of a *Hitler Jugend* troop, which may very well be described as the 'political Boy Scouts' of Germany.

The accommodation and equipment in these schools is on a scale which, for present-day Germany, may be considered lavish. Sometimes an old *Schloss* has been completely taken over, or sometimes one of the pre-war Cadet Training Schools. Besides the ordinary equipment, each school usually has some five riding horses in charge of a riding master, and at least two small motor cars of military design,

half a dozen motor cycles, one or two omnibuses, and some hundred or more cycles. Those schools situated near water, as, for example, the one at Plön, near Kiel, and at Spandau, near Berlin, also have canoes, large and small rowing boats, motor cutters, and yachts.

Teachers are Picked Men

The teachers are all picked young men. Ph.D. degrees are plentiful. But even more important than this, every teacher must be physically and politically trained and alert, with initiative and vitality in all forms of educational work. The teacher, in other words, must be a qualified youth leader rather than a mere scholar. Unless he is married, he lives in the boarding department and is in constant touch with the boys.

The life in these schools is characterized by a strongly marked political outlook—to that end are directed the numerous ceremonies, speeches, and lectures. In almost every lesson the pupils are taught to think in terms of national inheritance and of service to the German community. To symbolize the unity of all in the common task of serving the nation, there is a special uniform, the various schools being distinguished only by the colour of the shoulder strap. Each boy has some five different uniforms, but the usual full-dress school uniform worn by boys over fifteen—and by masters—consist of a peaked khaki cap, tunic and breeches, with field boots and a side arm. The younger boys wear open khaki shirts, shorts, and a forage cap. In summer all boys wear shorts. The teachers are called *Zugführer* and are each in charge of a small company of thirty pupils of the same age. The only thing that distinguishes their dress from that of the boys is the shape of the shoulder-strap. Their authority is absolute, but discipline is based on the idea of comradeship. Particularly in the case of the younger student-teachers, the boys have no hesitation about ragging or manhandling them when they take part in some of the more rigorous kinds of sport.

Exchange with English Boys

There is no secrecy about these schools. In fact, there have been several exchange teachers from English Public Schools. There have also

been several exchanges with groups of English schoolboys. Visitors with proper letters of introduction are always welcome. In this way I have spent several days in three of these schools. In each case the reception was warmer and more cordial than on similar visits to England. Naturally, amidst all these uniforms, one's first impression is that it is merely a camp providing an efficient course of pre-military training. Such a conclusion, as Mr. J. W. Tate, of Grantham, has also pointed out in the *Morning Post* of 15th January, 1937, 'has no more relation to the facts than a conclusion drawn by a casual foreign visitor to an English Public School, that its main object was to turn out good footballers and cricketers. It is necessary to live for some time in one of these National Political Schools to realize that the real object of the curriculum is to produce "all round" citizens, prepared to serve their country not only on the battlefield, but in every walk of social and economic life.' It should, of course, be remembered that the soldier type in Germany receives just about the same admiration that the athletic type enjoys in England or America. It is for this reason that the route-marching, accompanied by vigorous group-singing of a more or less martial quality, may almost be considered a German sport.

A German Week-end

The game in which all *Zugführer* and pupils must become proficient is *Geländesport*, which may be described as 'marching, together with tactical exercises without arms'. One Saturday afternoon at Plön I joined such a special *Geländesport*-expedition. At one-thirty all fell in on the sports field. One hundred boys on bicycles, a section in a bus, a car and motor cycle squad, and a troop of five on horse-back, set out to take up position at the end of a lake. Another hundred boys—the attackers—took their seats in two cutters and were towed by a motor boat for an hour across the lake. A field-wireless squad had meanwhile linked up all sections. Scouts had been sent out secretly. After an hour's reconnoitering the landing party was ordered to make a frontal attack. For some it meant plunging into the water with boots and all. But everyone was just

brimming with enthusiasm. Nobody hesitated for an instant. It is all part of the spirit embodied in one of their mottoes, 'Gelobt sei was hart macht'.

After the attack there was a route march for some five miles. And how they can sing when they march! Their stock of songs seemed to be inexhaustible. Then they pitched camp—the majority of the younger boys sleeping on straw in a large cowshed. That night the band played and the boys sang for the benefit of the local villagers. The next morning alarm was sounded at 3 a.m. Everybody had to turn out for another march and more *Geländesport*. This was typical. The idea is to get the youngsters out of the rut of routine. During morning school, for example, alarm may be sounded and within thirty minutes everybody must be away on a route march to some unknown destination. So, too, the boys may be expecting some special delicacy for lunch. Instead, they get bread and coffee and have to wait hours for their proper meal. The boys are always 'prepared' in the Boy Scout sense, and nobody grumbles.

The Boys at Play and Work

The boys themselves are undoubtedly the best proof of the efficacy of the schools. In school and on parade there was a stiff alertness about them. They were too busy and too interested in their work to bother much about a stranger. But after hours there was a natural courtesy, helpfulness, and chumminess about them which made you feel you had known them for a long time.

The ordinary classrooms were usually rather bleak and bare. This was accentuated by the khaki uniforms. To make up for this defect, there was, however, in all classes I visited, a vigour and enthusiasm the like of which I have not experienced elsewhere. As the *Oberstudienrat* and I enter the classroom the teacher commands: 'Achtung'. The class stands and gives a unified 'Heil Hitler' with outstretched arms. The *Oberstudienrat* returns the salute and introduces me to the teacher, who again gives an abbreviated 'Heil Hitler' and then shakes hands. After that the class forgets that you are there.

To give some idea of the school work. In

one senior form the teacher was reading Nietzsche's *Thus Spake Zarathustra*. Every pupil chipped in to answer questions put by the teacher with military quickness and precision. Contrasts between Nietzsche's and Marx's philosophy were vigorously discussed. Another class was making acetylene, with the teacher pointing out the relation of acetylene to artificial rubber. In another room boys were giving little lecturettes on such topics as 'What Tacitus thought of the Goths' or 'The games of the Northern German Tribes'. I was asked to teach an English class. They were twelve-year-olds who had had English for one year, yet they simply peppered me with questions—all in English. The idea is to get away from all 'dead' knowledge. Biology receives special attention from the racial and economic standpoint, a foreign language must be used as basis for cultural studies, and even in those schools where the classical curriculum has been retained it is those qualities of the Greeks and Romans applicable to the new German citizen which are stressed.

Every effort is made to supplement the school instruction by practical contact with the life of the German people. The whole countryside round the school is thoroughly explored. For weeks at a time classes and teachers interchange at various schools. Sometimes two classes will spend a month in a farmhouse at the other end of Germany and make a study of local conditions. One school sends its upper class to work for a month in a factory alongside the young apprentices. The factory workers are then later invited to the school as guests. Another school arranges for its senior pupils to work for a month underground in a coal mine; and back-breaking work it is too! Every long vacation there are also the voluntary tours for small groups under the supervision of teachers to surrounding countries. The purpose of these excursions is to make the young German aware of his own country and its needs, to break down all class snobbery, and, last but not least, to strengthen his own national consciousness through contact with foreign ways of life.

If the pupil passes through all these activities successfully he still has to spend six months in the *Arbeitsdienst* and two years in the *Wehrmacht*.

His ability and special training have prepared him well to assume leadership. The school does not guarantee him a job. What becomes of him will depend on his own hard work and initiative. Many boys are thinking of becoming army or *Arbeitsdienst* officers. The schools, however, are equally satisfied if they become farmers, the idea being that one job is as good as another, provided the attitude and personality of the worker stands in proper relationship to the rest of the nation.

An Evaluation

One cannot evaluate these schools yet, as they have only been in existence for a few years and the teachers are continually profiting by their own mistakes. The danger is realized of disciplining every minute of a boy's life for eight years. Some time is set aside for hobbies, art, marionettes, music, and handicrafts, but not enough. Then, too, there is the educational danger of overemphasizing the military discipline aspect of the schooling. The result is that the pupils learn only to obey and have very little opportunity of thinking for themselves and of having experience in personal initiative and responsibility.

These schools have been called the 'Public Schools' of Germany, and in many ways there are undoubted similarities. They are but another illustration of the veneration modern Germany has for all the things that, to them, symbolize British nationalism. The English Public Schools also emphasize character education and leadership. Where, however, the English schools have 'houses' with boys of different ages, the Germans have *Züge* with boys of the same age, which prevents 'house-matches' according to English custom.

The Germans emphasize all-roundness, rather than the English specialization in certain forms of sport. Then, too, the *Zugführer* does almost all the planning. There is nothing equivalent to the prefect system. The English schools have their chapel services, in place of which the Germans have the *Feierstunde* based on national political ideals. Not that this is pagan, however, for most of the boys are Lutheran and are confirmed in the ordinary way.

One cannot get away from the main objec-

tion. In spite of the tremendous efficiency of these schools, and in spite of the broad, all-round development of the pupils, the products can have only one-track minds. They can think only as Germans, and as Germans of a particular

type. The overemphasis on national values, which is the direct result of the disasters of the post-war period, has led to a starving of that spiritual quality of life and education which is the basis of all true greatness.

Democracy, Education and Leadership

Leslie Paul

**Author of 'The Republic of Children', 'Men in May', etc.
President, The Woodcraft Folk**

THE central problem of society is the problem of government and the world is torn between conflicting theories concerning it. The one triumphant theory of recent years is the theory of dictatorship. In its most familiar expression, that embraced by Nazi Germany, it regards the 'people' as a kind of organism best governed by a single will mystically (even miraculously) representative of 'the best' in 'the people'. Dressed so prettily it has an attraction for the immature, for those tired of controversy and conflict, for those who would like to transfer their political burdens to broader shoulders. Expressed practically it involves the bloody suppression of all opposition and the muzzling of all free thought. The tame and chastened nation which emerges from this ordeal is assumed to be ready for any sacrifice and to have acquired greatness.

Democracy, on the other hand, is an expression of the popular will. Authority is held by a Parliament or Chamber of members elected by ballot. The fluctuations in the party composition of such an assembly represent to some degree changes in popular feeling. Yet control of the organs of public opinion often permits democratic rulers to embark on policies no more in the interest of the people than the policies of dictators. Democracy, in retreat and somewhat in disgrace even among its own supporters is having a difficult time, especially with the totalitarian states, who accuse it of degeneracy. It has even been likened to a stinking corpse.

Yet there is an air of unreality about this debate. My own observation has led me to

discover that dictatorships emerge, not among united, but among disunited peoples and that democracies survive, despite the heat their party conflicts engender, when there is a measure of political agreement among parties as to the nature and function of the state. In other words, democracy is a form of government suited to united peoples, dictatorship to disunited peoples.

For government is the weapon of the State, the means by which it perpetuates itself. And States are founded upon classes, and are largely the instruments of classes. The working class is numerically the largest single class in any of the great European countries, and productively the most important, and it follows that if the form of government, or more accurately if the state in any one of those countries is to endure, it must be based upon the consent of the working class.

The consent of the governed has long been an established principle (more honoured in the breach) of statecraft. It cannot be too strongly emphasised that the governed, in ninety cases out of a hundred, are the working classes. Their share in government is negligible, even in the democracies, and the officers which exercise authority over them for the government are nearly always drawn from other classes. Now I do not believe that any nation can expect stability unless its Government is representative of, and responsible to, the working classes. And even so, such stability would depend on the ability of the government to achieve that equality in the economic sphere which is the corollary of political democracy. It follows from this

analysis that even while I must oppose dictatorships as tyrannies, I cannot remain satisfied with the achievements of democracies.

It was this kind of thought that drove me fourteen years ago to establish with the assistance of the Co-operative Movement, a movement for working class children, the Woodcraft Folk, now important and well-rooted. I and my colleagues felt that the great need was for a *socially educated* working class, and we felt too that before this could be achieved we had to start with the children. No matter what the adult working class educational organizations might do the strongest formative influences were at work in childhood. The result only too often was that the adult educational organizations formed the means whereby the brighter workers learned not how to serve their class, but how to climb out of it. Saturated with ambitions of 'getting-on' derived from the day school, inoculated with doctrines of Empire, 'pithed', as Mr. Wells would put it, of creative impulses and co-operative inclinations, the material arrived at the gates of the adult institutions in a worthless condition. It can only be the early influences, at work unconsciously during the whole of life, that can be responsible for the constant blows the working class receives from leaders who betray and desert it at critical moments.

But what did we mean by the *social* education of working class children? Many organizations¹ catered for these children already—Brigades, Scouts, Guides on the one side were gigantic organizations placing implicit faith in the existing social system. On the other hand were tiny organizations like Socialist Sunday Schools and Co-operative Junior Guilds, struggling to create an enthusiasm for a new social order. The Scouts in our view had the right psychological approach to children, the wrong conception of society. The Socialist Sunday Schools and Co-operative Guilds had the right view of society, but the wrong psychological approach. We wanted to merge the best of one group with the best of the other.

We wanted to create for working class

children the kind of organization which by providing them with a happy, imaginatively organized group life, could strengthen the social inclinations of the child, yet set his mind critically and creatively free from the limitations imposed upon it by society. This was to be done, we held, by the formation of groups which were tied by common obligations and traditions, but in which the final word rested with the members of the group themselves. To put it more simply we wanted groups which were conscious of a common social purpose and in which the spirit of democracy was considered more important than its forms.

We did not believe it essential that meetings of children should adopt the stereotyped forms of adult democracy, but we did want to build up a sense of common responsibility and common leadership. For this reason the group life of Pioneers of the Woodcraft Folk came to resemble tribal, not military or 'meeting' forms. The military form of organization involves a careful division of the members of a group into rigid grades and castes. The 'meeting' form involves a passive audience listening to a vocal platform. The tribal form involves the complete equality of rights for each individual within an *active* community. This does not mean that the tribe is without leadership. On the contrary, it has recognized leaders responsible to the rest, but it means that leadership does not involve the creation of groups in any sense privileged and separated from the rank and file, either by the impalpable barrier between active platform and passive audience, or by the mystic insignia of rank. So well established is this democratic spirit that, in a woodcraft group of people of all ages from eight or nine upwards, the spirit is never one of oppressive discipline or dreary formality, but of freedom and comradeship. The community is powerful. It is able to impose its collective will on its members, but there is no trespassing on the rights of the individual.

How is the leadership created for such groups? For many years the movement has encouraged the 'farming-out' of responsibilities among the young people in its groups. As a result there are many offices which can be held

¹ I have dealt with these organisations more fully in *The Republic of Children*. Allen & Unwin. 7s. 6d.

by quite young children, especially at camp where the group has to live as a community and do all the chores demanded by a collective life. The older children grow, the more jobs they are able to fulfil, and in a rapidly growing organization there is continual demand for new leaders and continual pressure on the young to prepare themselves for responsibility. As a consequence it nearly always happens that quite a large percentage of young people in every group get experience of one kind or another on the fringes of leadership. The Pioneers—children from 10 to 16—are normally divided into clans for group work and have the opportunity to elect their own clan leaders. At large camps they may be divided into communes—that is, into age groups—and, through each age group meeting separately, elect a representative to a Camp Council. At the commune meetings adults are present only to advise. Whatever the form, however, there are always real opportunities for the twin functions of democracy, the delegation, and the acceptance of responsibility. It follows that, since the power of delegation of responsibility rests in the hands of organized groups, the power of withdrawal rests there also. And democracy is meaningless unless it involves the right of withdrawal of powers once delegated.

This somewhat abstract description makes it sound as though the organization of the Woodcraft Folk is both elaborate and arid. Happily it is neither. Tribal forms are essentially flexible forms. Military forms are rigid. 'Go-to-meeting' forms are dull. The tribal kind of group adapts its organization to its membership and circumstances and is more concerned to see that it gets done what has to be done in an atmosphere of consent and co-operation than it is about points of punctilio. Moreover, the tribal form lends itself to the picturesque and imaginative, to conceptions of physical hardihood and personal reliance, to songs, colour, campfires, and constant activity. Under bad leadership, true, a Woodcraft group can sometimes fail dismally to get any serious educational work done. A more rigid organization might ensure at least the formal

appearance of educational work, might save 'face'. And as every elementary school teacher knows, almost as much importance is attached to 'saving face' in our educational system as in China. But do we want to save face? Only through mistakes and failures of which they are immediately aware do members of movements learn to succeed; only by watching, and, if necessary, replacing leaders, do they learn to exercise their democratic powers wisely and seriously. Too much control from the top would deprive them of an important part of their social education.

For what activities does the movement function? They are wide and varied, but include folk dancing, dramatics, handicrafts, physical training, camping and open-air life. A batch of cheap publications serve the members. Regular classes are organized for leaders. Training camps are systematically run. International friendship is promoted by the organization of visits abroad and the running of large international camps (in 1937 the W.F. ran an International Children's Camp at Brighton, which roughly 2,000 children from all over Europe attended).

Behind all this absorbing work is the conviction, which must once again be emphasised, that the *social* education of working class children must be promoted in a progressive atmosphere. It is not part of the work of the Woodcraft Folk to fill immature minds with a few political phrases. It is a part of the work of the Woodcraft Folk to correct the false impressions of man and society that the child is likely to glean from a not-very-honest society, whether those impressions are concerned with sex or war and peace. It is the real function of the movement to remove children from the smug atmosphere of complacent satisfaction with existing society, to bring them up conscious of the extent of their (and society's) debt to, and reliance upon fellow-workmen the world over; to make them feel, and understand why they feel, that their individual future is not just a matter of 'getting on' but of common salvation or common destruction in a world facing the worst peril since the Flood.

EUROPEAN CONFERENCE

of the
NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

Paris, August 3—9

Theme :

TEACHERS AND THE REALISATION OF THE DEMOCRATIC IDEAL

The theme of the Conference will fall naturally into two main parts. The first is the democratic ideal itself. There will be a full discussion of what we understand by this ideal, including :

1. **A study of the present situation in the world.**
2. **The methods by which it can be hoped to attain a society in which the democratic ideal is realised.**
3. **The part to be played by the N.E.F. in this task and the part to be played by the individual teacher in his capacity as a citizen.**

The second division of the subject will embrace the possible contributions of education to the attainment of the democratic ideal.

1. **The psychological bases of a democratic education.**
2. **The problems of organization of a democratic school.**
3. **The relation of the school to the community.**
4. **The rôle of the different school subjects (especially the social sciences) in preparing pupils to become good citizens in a democratic society.**
5. **The training of teachers both professionally and as regards their duties in the social life of their country.**

Further details later from

International Headquarters, N.E.F., 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

Problems of Self-Government in School

Paul Roberts

Headmaster, Frensham Heights

IT has always been one of my great regrets that at the time it was flourishing I was not sufficiently alert or interested to pay a visit to the Little Commonwealth, for I do not think it would be an exaggeration to say that, with the exception of the Doctress Montessori, Homer Lane has provided the greatest educational inspiration of the present century, at least in the realm of pure educational technique. His work with delinquent children not only had a profound influence on the policy of our national organization for the treatment of such children, but it induced a large number of teachers dealing with normal children to reconsider their ideas about the relationship between the adult and the child, and a certain number of them to start experiments in consciously organized self-government.

The founders of Frensham Heights were among the early experimenters with this technique, and for the past ten years I have had the opportunity of watching the development of it. Many mistakes were made. Some have been corrected, some still remain to be corrected, but it has been of absorbing interest to follow.

In order to explain the developments which have taken place, it is first necessary to describe the system as I found it. During the period under review the school has grown from one of about 80 boys and girls ranging in age from 6 to 18 years to about 150. A full meeting of the school took place regularly three times a term and could be called at other times by members of the school under conditions laid down in the rather elaborate constitution or 'Standing Orders', as it was called. It was presided over by the Head Boy or Head Girl of the school, and children and staff all attended and were equal before it. There were a few rules concerned with health and safety, known as 'Headmaster's Rules', with which it could not interfere. Apart from this it could legislate

about anything under the sun connected with the life of the school. All school officers—Head Boy and Girl, Councillors, Tellers, Games Captains, etc.—and members of Committees, whether children or staff, were elected by it. Its business was prepared by a Council composed mainly of Councillors elected termly by the school, which acted as a sort of cabinet to the parliament, and whose members also carried prefectorial authority.

The School Meeting delegated its judicial authority to the Council and to the Companies. The Companies were groups of about ten children of all ages under the care of a grown-up Adviser who is especially responsible for the members of his Company throughout their time at school. These Companies used to meet for a few minutes each day before morning school. The usual procedure for any routine offence, breach of rules, unpunctuality, and so on, was for the offender to be told by a Councillor or member of the staff to report to his Company. The Company sat in judgment at its next meeting and imposed punishment. Offences which appeared to be of a serious or difficult nature were handed on by the Companies to the Council, which held special meetings to deal with them.

A perusal of the minutes of the early years leaves the impression that much the greater part of the time of the meetings was taken up with constitutional problems—adjusting the Standing Orders and the procedure and composition of the School Meeting and its various offshoots to the question with which it had to deal. The remaining time seems to be divided between making or altering rules regulating the life of the community, and trying to make plans for the ease and comfort of their life. One problem which has exercised the meeting from the beginning and is still not satisfactorily settled is that of the method of electing 'Seniors'. The privilege of becoming a 'Senior' somewhere

about the age of 15 is a highly valued and jealously guarded one. The School Meeting has always retained the power of electing to this position (though sometimes in a delegated form), and although the method of elections has been altered at least once every twelve months they are still searching for a satisfactory solution.

Another interesting problem in early days was the method of carrying out elections. Where numbers up to four or five had to be elected at the same time they originally started with the Proportional Representation Society's method of the single transferable vote, but soon realized that, ingenious as this might be for securing the fair representation of minorities in a political assembly, it had little virtue for trying to select the most suitable individuals from the point of view of their efficiency and character to form a Committee. After trying a large number of plans they finally arrived at the plan by which the voter is presented with a complete list of candidates, and numbers his choice in inverse order of preference up to the number of vacancies. So, if there were ten nominations for five vacancies, he would number his first choice 5, his second choice 4, and so on down to 1, and leave blank the remainder. The numbers were then just added up and the five candidates who obtained the largest totals were declared elected. If you think this out carefully you will see how surprisingly suitable this is for the purpose.

I think the characteristics which would have impressed an observer most in the early days were a strong democratic self-consciousness, and a perhaps too great equality of adults and children. The former showed itself in an insistence on retaining the power of election, and an over-emphasis on privileges with an under-emphasis on the corresponding obligations. I think the idea in our minds then was that if you gave the children democratic rights their sense of obligation to the community would develop through exercising them. It cannot be said that experience has borne this out. With regard to the equality of children and adults two points were noticeable. It frequently happened that two or three grown-ups were nominated by the children for membership of some committee and voted on

by them. In a world not wholly perfect this was open to obvious objections. The other point was that, given equal status, the grown-ups if they joined in discussion at all were bound to carry more weight than children, and in the excitement of a debate were sometimes in danger of squashing or discouraging young opponents. The election of members of the staff by the children has long been abolished. There has been no constitutional change with regard to the second difficulty, but the grown-ups, although they still sometimes enter joyfully into a fight, have learnt in the main to withhold their strength.

The two biggest changes have been in the matter of the election of Counsellors and in the gradual lapse of the judicial function. The matter of changing the election of the Head Boy and Girl and the Counsellors was the one occasion when I have acted as a complete autocrat. I watched the system carefully for five years, and although I saw merits in it, I then just gave out that in future I should nominate the Head Boy and Girl and the Counsellors myself. The reasons which made me do this had nothing whatever to do with the people elected. The school was almost unerring in its judgment in choosing the right people. It was merely a matter of the attitude of these elder boys and girls towards their job. I wanted them to feel responsible *for* and not *to* those younger than themselves. I think perhaps it is symbolized by the fact that at the same time we changed the spelling from Councillor to Counsellor. Rather curiously this was followed by a tendency on the part of the school to throw other elections back on authority. Time after time the School Meeting passed resolutions declaring that it would be more efficient if the Council or Games Committee or the Headmaster chose this or that official, and sometimes authority had to throw back their own responsibilities upon them. They made the discovery that bureaucracy may easily be more efficient than democracy, and they were driven to make some interesting comparisons.

A large number of officials are now chosen by the committees to whom they are responsible, but the school still elects a certain number. The lapse of the judicial function of the

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Companies was an entirely natural process without any interference from above. After various expressions of dissatisfaction with the system of reporting to Companies and attempts to reform the system, it finally broke down following a motion passed in the School Meeting to the effect that the School would welcome much more direct action by Staff and Counsellors instead of endless reporting to Companies. There is much food for thought in this for people who try to press children to extremes in the management of their own affairs.

Another problem which has exercised the school throughout has been the difficulty created by the wide range of age. In very early days what we call the Junior Department, *i.e.* children under about 11, dropped out. They manage their own affairs in an informal way in their own department. But still it remained obvious that there could not be a full community of interest and outlook between the children ranging from 11 to 18, and various plans were tried to deal with this. The latest is that the meeting has been divided into two houses which can meet separately, Juniors under about 15, and Seniors over 15. The Junior Meeting is presided over by one of its own number. In each case they can naturally only deal with questions which affect them to the exclusion of the other age group, and still they meet together when any question has to be decided which affects the whole school. The arrangement has some merit, but is a clumsy one, and I feel certain that it is not final. I am interested to notice, however, that other schools with an even smaller age range than we have, have had to tackle the same problem.

The general development has in an interesting way followed that of nearly all early political communities ; whereas in early days nearly all the business of every kind was transacted in the general meeting, there has latterly been a steady growth towards departmentalism. At the present day a School Meeting still takes place about three times a term ; the general constitutional framework has not greatly altered, and vigorous discussions on various aspects of school life are still quite common, but the greater part of its time seems to be taken up in receiving reports of the various

Committees who are carrying on the real work. Among these may be mentioned a School Magazine Committee ; a Library Committee ; a Dramatic Committee ; and Indoor Games Committee, which is responsible for such things as dances and the entertaining of visitors to the school ; the Tuck Committee, which runs the school Tuck Shop with a turnover of about £30 per term and a profit of about £5 or £6 per term ; the School Bank, which handles about £100 per term and deals with something like 2,500 cheques a term ; the Standing Orders Committee, which sees that the Standing Orders are kept up to date and in conformity with any rules passed in the meeting regarding them, and is also referred to as a ruling body on any question of procedure or legality ; the Bicycle Shed Committee, which issues licences to all bicycle owners contingent on the road worthiness of their machines ; the Lost Property Committee ; the Wireless Committee controlling the use of the school wireless set ; a Social Service Committee co-ordinating the various charitable efforts made in the school ; and quite recently there has been added an Economy Committee to try and help the school finances by checking wastage of one sort and another. The Games Committee, whose members are all *ex-officio*, does not report to the School Meeting, and private societies for the pursuit of hobbies and enthusiasms are not governed by it unless they have the handling of any considerable funds. These are the usual activities to be found in every school to-day, and they have great value in their opportunity of giving responsibility to the great majority of children in the school. It is not, of course, necessary to have a system of self-government in order that committees of this kind may function, but the existence of self-government has, I think, this little advantage, that it makes everyone feel responsible to the community rather than to some individual or other. Another clear advantage of having children working in committees for defined purposes is that there is for them a reality about their work which is sometimes lacking in a large meeting which tends to discuss generalities.

Another interesting development is a system of *ad hoc* Commissions established from time to time to collect evidence about and report on

various problems of school life and organization, which seemed a little too important or too complicated to be decided by general discussion at a meeting. Some unusually interesting and mature reports have been produced in this way.

There are one or two general observations to be made. It is most important for anyone experimenting with self-government in a school to think out as clearly as he can the differences between a democratic political state or township of adults, and self-government in a community of children. In the political state the democratic ideal carrying with it freedom of thought and speech is for most people a fundamental part of living together, and can probably only receive satisfactory expression in a democratic system of government. In a community of children a democratic organization is a useful and convenient framework, but it is only a technique and as such, although it is a useful vehicle for the application of fundamental educational principles, it is not a fundamental principle in itself nor would I go so far as to say that it is absolutely essential, and if this difference is not kept clearly in mind it may be damaging.

It must never be assumed that any characteristics of adult democratic government can be applied without appropriate modification to a community of children. For instance, in a democratic state the members have certain rights. Children also have certain rights, but the two are not comparable. The purpose of the association of persons in a political society is not the same as the purpose of the association of children in a school community. There are obvious similarities, but analogies must never be applied without severe testing. When I read accounts of some recent experiments in self-government in schools starting off with a carefree enthusiasm to imitate all the excrescences of our political life—polling booths, electioneering, and the life—I could wish for their sake that before doing so they would make a study of the tribulations and mistakes through which others have been before them.

And, indeed, the system has many dangers which have to be carefully guarded against. There is the danger of emphasis being placed upon rights rather than obligations. This has manifested itself on many occasions here and

requires very careful handling when it appears. If you merely squash children about it then you destroy the reality of the whole organization to them. There is, too, the danger, also noticeable in the adult community, of undue importance being given to the demagogue. For instance, it is often assumed that the most public-spirited person is the one whose voice is most frequently heard at meetings, and the expression of views and opinions may come to be regarded as a virtue in itself. The process of devolution has done a good deal to meet this difficulty, but I would say that in this school at least it is by no means completely solved. It is linked with that other problem which I think exercises all schools—what can be done with the introvert type of senior boy or girl who does not possess powers of leadership in the ordinary sense, but who is nevertheless a valuable member of the community. I have not yet met anyone who has found a completely satisfactory solution to this. Another point which has always impressed itself upon me is the importance of making all the children's activities in connection with this self-government a reality. They must be made to feel that what they are doing is effective in the life of a community. It is, for instance, a good thing for the Headmaster's Rules to be as few as possible and that he should be willing to consider carefully any suggestions made by the school for their alteration. In connection with this question of reality I think a fairly clear principle has emerged which, is that the children should be allowed and encouraged to make their own decisions on all questions related to their life together for which they are capable of accepting responsibility.

It is unreal that they should be allowed to make decisions for the consequences of which other people must take the responsibility. This seems to me to be the corner stone of any system of children's self-government. I suppose it could have been thought out ten years ago, but perhaps it is none the worse for having emerged through this process of trial and error.

In spite of its dangers and difficulties, I have come to believe firmly in the value of the system. Dr. Norwood at the end of his career at Harrow dismissed it in a sentence as a waste of time. I quite honestly think that his experience of it must have been limited to those unfortunate experiments which have been made by teachers who have attempted to use it to compensate for their own ineffectiveness as disciplinarians. This is the last purpose for which it should be used. Education for democracy has to-day become almost a slogan. I am left with no doubt that a system of self-government in a school makes a valuable contribution to this end. In being made responsible for the organization of all their activities they have the opportunities of observing, not only the strength, but nearly all the shortcomings of democratic government, and it must be remembered that the technique is still in its infancy. In the opportunities that are given them as they grow older of presiding at meetings of one kind and another, they meet problems of discipline and leadership which are far more difficult and far more real than those, for instance, of a sergeant in an Officers' Training Corps. With all its shortcomings, and difficulties, I do honestly believe it is a valuable aspect of a real education for life by living.

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School Children in Vienna after the 'Anschluss'

F. Sowa

AFTER the 'Anschluss' the Austrians were much more radical in the school-question—as in many other respects—than the Germans had ever been. For whereas until recent events the Jewish children in some parts of Germany had been allowed to attend 'Aryan' elementary schools, and about half the school children were still attending these schools, this disgrace was soon abolished in Austria.

After special holidays in March, 1938, to celebrate Hitler in Austria, the school children came back to school and the teachers had to organize meetings in the schools and to speak enthusiastically about the new leadership. Many of them did it with all their hearts, for certainly among the teaching profession there had been a great number of Nazis. But these very teachers two weeks earlier had had to praise Schuschnigg and to stand for an independent Austria. In the drawing lesson the children only two weeks ago had had to draw or decorate 'Krukenhreuzel', the symbol of catholic Austria; they now had to draw swastikas. Children are adaptable, but some, especially the younger ones, pestered their parents with questions: Why did the teacher praise Schuschnigg and why does he call him a traitor now?

At first the teachers in secondary schools—according to orders given—declared that the Jewish pupils were only guests and had to be treated as such. Of course the hosts were not the same everywhere, so there were still some schools left in which the Jews were decently treated. The Jewish teachers, on the other hand, were immediately informed by post that they were not to enter the school buildings any more.

All this time the new heads of the Educational Boards had apparently been racking their brains about the solution of the 'school question'.

There were rumours about their intentions, but we were unprepared for their decision. One day at the end of April all Jewish pupils in secondary schools were told to leave the school building and not to enter it again. They would be given instruction as to what schools they could attend. A large proportion of these Jewish boys were just facing their Matric. Many of them had been very happy in their schools. They now felt powerless and humiliated.

Six weeks before the end of the school year six schools in Vienna were turned into 'Jewish schools'. Teachers in these schools were not taken from among the dismissed Jewish teachers; they were Aryans who were out of favour with the new Government. These teachers—many of whom felt humiliated by such compulsory measures—had to work together with Jewish children who had just received the heaviest blow of their young lives. Moreover, these teachers were absolutely powerless against the Aryan children who were being organized as 'Hitler-jugend', who came to attack the Jewish children. For days after the new Jewish schools had started to work, the former pupils of these schools, who now had to go to other schools, took revenge upon the Jewish children who had 'driven them away' from their old places. They appeared at the doors of one of these schools armed with leather whips and supported by a group of the Hitler-jugend. After school they rushed at the Jewish children, beating them with their whips. In vain the headmaster tried to protect the children, he was powerless.

This is only one example of the growing brutality of the school youth. The only influence that counts in the lives of the Nazi youth is their organization, the Hitler-jugend. School is unimportant; parents are unimportant. Strong discipline is asked by their leaders,

but no discipline need be found in school. The political outlook of the teachers is known to the pupils, and woe to those who had not been sympathisers. Former Jewish teachers are rung up at midnight by former pupils, now members of the S.A. or Hitler-jugend, and threatened because they had given them bad marks some months ago.

In the first days after March the free days were nearly equal in number to the school days. Nearly all days in which an important visitor from Germany came—and how often this happened!—were free. Hitler-jugend comes before school, and the Hitler-jugend was needed to send huge numbers of their members to decorate the streets for the visitors or to parade in front of them. For demonstrations, pageants, whenever the Vaterland needed it, school children were free. Officials of the Hitler-jugend were free beyond this, whenever they were wanted or whenever they thought they were wanted.

Youth is enthusiastic. It is inspired by the excitement of playing a part in public life. Instead of intellectual nourishment and abstract matters they are given the sense of their own importance and the sweet pleasure of worship and thoughtless activity. The teachers are unable to keep up school discipline or to expect from their pupils even the slightest intellectual efforts. Matriculation? Examinations? They do not count. By a new law, issued about six weeks before the Matriculations were to take place, the examinations were made a farce. The oral examinations were done away with. From the four papers every candidate had to write, members of the Hitler-jugend were free to leave out one.¹ The newly-appointed Nazi Matriculation inspectors were not too par-

ticular. Nearly everybody passed. None of the Hitler-jugend members failed, although they had had more important things to do than study in these eventful weeks.

In the Jewish schools the children meanwhile worked pretty hard. They had quickly to adapt themselves to new teachers and methods—a hard thing to do when your home life is continually being disturbed by the worst of troubles, imprisonment of father or brother, loss of livelihood, loss of home, confiscations. School attendance was perforce irregular. The children had to queue up in front of the prisons in order to be allowed to bring their fathers some laundry; they had to queue up in the passport offices, in the American or English consulates. They were often caught in the streets on their way to school by S.A. men and made to scrub the floors in the barracks or to wash cars.

On the other hand, for those who had no immediate prospects of emigration it was essential to get good school reports. For in the next school term (starting in September) only one Jewish secondary school would be allowed to exist, namely, the school that already existed as a Jewish school. But although it had always been quite independent and entirely maintained through fees and Jewish funds, it would only be permitted to accept about 400 pupils, about two per cent. of all the secondary school pupils of the town. (Up to this time the Jewish pupils in secondary schools had formed about twenty per cent.) These two per cent. would have to be chosen from among those showing the best reports or from among those whose parents had fought in the war. What is to become of the others? No school would accept them; they could nowhere be

¹ We have made enquiries as to whether this exemption was temporary or permanent and are told that 'immediately after the Anschluss or during the time of the election, those boys who had spent much of their time on behalf of the political process of the Anschluss, were given a special exemption for their final examination by writing three papers instead of four for the Reifeprüfung. This exemption was purely temporary and only valid for this particular short period, and there are to-day no exemptions for Hitler Youth boys.'

The *Reifeprüfung* differs in certain important respects from any matriculation examination in this country. The examining body consists of the

candidate's school teachers, with an outside chairman appointed by the Board of Education. Every pupil must pass an examination in Biology, and pupils from the Oberschulen must do a written paper in German, English, Latin, and Mathematics. At Gymnasium (purely classical schools) Latin and Greek still hold pride of place. In addition to the written papers there are compulsory oral examinations. Pupils may be examined in any subject they have chosen and in which they may excel, or they may be examined in any subject in which they have shown weakness. It is left to the examiners to decide.—ED.

apprentices, find any occupation, learn any profession.

The new curriculum is based on the German model. Above all other subjects is gymnastics, physical training. The teachers, especially the history and German teachers, are instructed to point out the superiority of the Germanic race on every occasion. The pupils must be given national feeling rather than knowledge. Co-education is utterly banished. The girls schools are to become schools that train the future housewife and have to do away with training for the university.

Learning and knowledge are not important. This anti-humanist attitude is even to be felt in the primary schools. The Vienna working class population, which is somehow influenced by the slogans of the once powerful cultural organizations of the social-democratic party, 'Bildung macht frei' (Education frees the people), show a deep mistrust of the new schools for their children. I listened to a conversation of a few working class mothers who were much dissatisfied with the fact that their children were sent to the country by the newly-established welfare funds during the school term.

'Why can't it be during the holidays?' they said, 'learning does not seem to mean anything these days.'

The children while still in the primary school were to be instructed in politics. The leaders, praised a short time ago, were abused now. New heroes, badges, ideals. The children were trained to recognize and worship the various uniformed military organizations. They were instructed in the race theory. A book for primary school teachers (published in the edition of the notorious 'Stuermer') is recommended to the teachers to be used in class. The aim of the book is to show why 'we Germans' hate the Jew. The poisoned mushroom, a coloured picture on the cover, is a symbol for the Jew.

What is to become of the new generation? Hatred, lies, shallowness, cruelty, the continual story of the superiority of the Aryan race, such is the nourishment of the Aryan child. Humiliation, suppression, the struggle, at least as an individual, to escape the terrible fate of the whole people, such is the nourishment of the Jewish child. What is to become of this youth?

Music Teaching and the Child

Coenraad Gomperts

Visiting Violin-Teacher to
the Caldecott Community

THE primary aim of education at all times has been to make the child fit for living in his contemporary society—in other words, to make him a social being. In order to become social the child has to give up qualities which our society will not tolerate and to acquire new qualities which our society demands insistently.

Now it may be difficult to prevent a child climbing out of the window or running across the road, but that is a simple matter compared with the effort needed to alter what we commonly call the 'unsocial' behaviour of the child. It is so difficult that parents find it necessary sometimes to seek the help of an experienced child psychologist. The fact is that every child produces a powerful but natural resistance towards our social demands.

To him it is not at all clear why he should give up qualities which satisfy him in exchange for others the advantage of which seems to him extremely doubtful.

Bearing this in mind the modern educationist refrains from aiming at direct changes in the child's behaviour. By constantly providing ample scope for the child's activities in a form which does not clash with our social demands, a compromise is made between our point of view and that of the child. Apart from the fact that such a compromise diminishes the child's resistance considerably, it maintains at the same time the child's own contribution towards his normal mental and social development which, through drastic educational methods, are otherwise so easily lost. For example, the toddler who takes a great interest

in his excrements will be found willing to play with sand and water instead, and when he is a bit older, with plasticine.

Such 'exchanged' activities have a very high educational value ; it is from this very source that the child draws his later professional interests.

To what extent can these generally accepted views be applied to the specialized teaching of music ? Can we, for instance, speak with the same justification of a strong resistance on the child's part to his musical education ? Certainly we can, and it is to be found in every musical child. In his behaviour in the music lesson the young child shows similar characteristics to those shown in his behaviour at home. It is not difficult to translate some of these characteristics into terms of ordinary home behaviour. There is scratching on a fiddle or banging on a piano, we find it back in the aggression of the healthy child ; constantly playing out of tune often coincides not only with habitual lying, but also with an undeveloped sense of cleanliness (in some languages musicians speak of a performance being 'dirty', meaning it to be out of tune). There are many more correlations, obvious and less obvious ones, which teach us that musical education is by no means an isolated undertaking, but that it is closely connected with what is commonly known as social education and based on exactly the same principles.

There are, of course, not only psychological reasons for the fact that the child scratches, plays out of tune, or out of rhythm. There are other equally important reasons : the ear is not sufficiently trained, the different muscles used in playing the instrument are not as yet co-ordinated in a satisfactory way, in short, the child has not acquired as yet the necessary technique. The mistake, however, too often made, is that these technical problems are considered as all-important, as the only ones, and in this way the psychological aspect is completely disregarded.

We should further bear in mind that there is a fundamental difference of psychological structure between the child's musical activity and that of the teacher. Resulting from our general as well as our musical development,

the instrument has become for us more or less a means to an end, a musical end, *e.g.* the playing of the Beethoven Violin Concerto. For a child it is an end in itself. We could put it thus : whereas we play *on* a piano, *on* a violin the child plays *with* it. A purely technical tuition may be based on sound principles from the musician's point of view, but as no psychological factors are taken into account, it will be found that the child is in most cases unable to adapt himself to it. The inevitable result of this is that his music lesson, intended as a source of pleasure, becomes one of boredom.

Let us think back a moment to our nursery years. We had perhaps as our favourite toy an engine or a ship which gave us hours of happiness. But there came the uncle who knew so much about engineering and after telling us that we had been doing things all wrong, he forthwith showed us exactly how to do it. After the uncle's instruction how many of us retained the same interest in our toy ?

The same happens too often in the music lesson. Here, also, the child likes very much to explore for himself and though these explorations may seem worthless in our professional eyes, the fact remains that he profits, at any rate in the beginning, much more from his own explorations than he is able to do from a strict supervisory method.

The teacher of a musical instrument to a young child has practically the same task as the child's parents. Both have constantly to balance their activities of gratification and frustration. A nagging mother or father will find it difficult to teach their child anything. If the music teacher combines two personalities in himself, that of the musician and that of the teacher, one might say that the musician considers his educational nagging a musical necessity. On the other hand, it should be said that the teacher may allow himself to take a milder view, less musicianly at first sight, but in the long run more beneficial.

Just as the child has gradually to acquire our social habits, often in strict opposition to his own, the musical child has also to acquire our musical habits. He has to accept our tonal and rhythmic system, our appreciation of a good tone, etc. A Chinese child in his own country would have to acquire other

standards, different again from those of an Indian. But the procedure remains the same ; they are all compelled to give up their own musical or—in a wider sense—social habits and accept those of their teachers.

The zealous haste with which the music teacher generally induces the child to give up his own world is by no means justified. Even if it seems to have shortened the way towards acceptance of our world, we find that such an acceptance cannot be called a real one, as it

has had no time to make roots and to become part of the child.

In the musical development of the child there are also, so to speak, the nursery stages of sand and plasticine. The music teacher's final success will therefore largely depend on whether—as a teacher—he has considered the activities in these stages as valuable contributions towards the child's later capabilities, or whether—as a musician—he has found it necessary to suppress them.

The General Development of the Pre-School Child

Agatha H. Bowley, B.A.

Clinic Psychologist to the
Dundee Child Guidance Clinic

IT is a mere platitude nowadays to say that the foundations of the child's character are laid in the first five years of his life. Evidence has accumulated in recent years, from Child Guidance Clinics and from all persons engaged in therapeutic work with children and adults, to show that unfortunate and unfavourable experiences in early childhood may prevent satisfactory development in later life in all spheres of growth, physical, intellectual and social-emotional.

In this article I want to review very briefly the normal development of children between the ages of eighteen months and five years, and to consider the factors which may help or hinder their development. The various aspects of development—physical, intellectual and social-emotional—are inter-related and inter-dependent to a considerable extent, but for the sake of clarity it is best to consider them separately.

Physical Development

Physical growth is not so rapid during the period we are considering as during the first year of life. In the first year the child is mainly concerned in discovering his physical powers, in learning to lift his head, to hold it erect, to raise the upper part of his body, and

so to sit ; in learning to roll, to crawl, to stand and to toddle ; and in learning to grasp accurately and to co-ordinate hand and eye movements.

During the next few years the child is constantly engaged in trying to develop and perfect these physical powers. In his second year much time and energy is spent in mastering the art of walking. From then on he is tremendously interested in all forms of active play which tend to increase his muscular powers—balancing, jumping, climbing, running, hopping, skipping, and so on. Usually, if his mental and physical health is good, he is full of muscular energy, and of the desire to express it.

If the pre-school child is denied an outlet for this energy—if he is told to sit still when he longs to be up and doing, or to 'walk properly' when he prefers to run or skip—he is being discouraged from growing and developing. It is in order to provide him with adequate outlets for this fund of physical energy that Nursery School teachers plead for jungle gyms and chutes, and swings and see-saws, and wise parents collect packing cases and planks for the back garden or the back-yard. Further, by mastering various physical skills the child gains self-confidence and proves to himself

that he is not entirely dependent on grown-ups, nor entirely defenceless in a world which is eminently strange and full of unwelcome surprises. From the point of view of his emotional growth, this fact is a very important one.

Motor co-ordination is another aspect of physical growth which develops considerably during the pre-school years. As a baby, when the reflex grasp had been abandoned, he learnt first to grasp very clumsily with his whole palm, and later to oppose his thumb to his forefinger. Now he is learning to manipulate a number of different tools with a fair degree of precision, and his fine muscular control and dexterity increase considerably. This is the pre-writing stage when he delights in painting and scribbling and in handling sand and plasticine. His fingers itch to be exploring and manipulating, just as his legs long to be on the move. This is the time too when he enjoys all kinds of simple peg boards and form boards and sorting toys and hammer peg games.

If he is brought up in an institution or in an environment, which does not supply him with many of the materials necessary for gross muscular or fine muscular development, growth may be retarded. The slum child, if he survives the hazards of the street and the tender mercies of older brothers and sisters, and provided that the essentials of sunshine, fresh air and adequate nutrition are not altogether denied him, often acquires independence early, and by four years old is a regular 'tough guy'.

Intellectual Growth

It is impossible to discuss adequately in the space of this article the various aspects of intellectual growth—such as language, perception or reasoning. It will suffice to draw attention to the most important facts.

The pre-school period is a period of rapid language development. At a year old the average child has two-three words at his command; by two years he has about 200, and by five years his vocabulary is over 2000 words. There are, however, great individual differences depending to a large extent on the type of home from which the child comes, the kind of speech pattern that he hears, and the degree to which language is used as a means of

contact with him. Retarded children almost invariably talk late and their spoken and understood vocabulary grows slowly. Twins, also, are often slow in language development. From such close contact they understand each other with a very limited use of words, and they are less dependent on the company of other children and so do not receive the stimulus to language development which this implies.

Certainly children need to be encouraged to express themselves in these early years, and to be given a patient hearing when they are keen to relate an exciting event. Moreover their many questions need to be answered as simply and clearly as possible. They should not be put off with evasions, incomprehensible explanations or by fictitious or incorrect information. If the adult cannot explain why the grass is green, how gramophones work or whom God is, it is best to admit ignorance. Moreover, the new version of the origin of babies—that 'Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs have brought you a baby sister'—is just as pernicious as the 'stork theory'. The child's questions on this subject, when asked, should always be answered accurately.

In this period the child learns to clarify his perceptions. He learns to distinguish between colours and to match them, while in babyhood he seemed only aware of lightness and darkness, i.e. brightness rather than hue. Normally towards the end of the pre-school period he can name colours correctly. But children vary considerably in aesthetic appreciation. A small boy of four of my acquaintance, the son of a well-known artist, will describe the puddles on a tarred road a 'greyish-white' and the shadows cast by a tree as 'bluish-purple'.

Little children are also genuinely interested in differences in size, shape, weight, sound and texture. Madame Montessori based much of her didactic theory on this fact. Various types of sense training material are used in all Nursery schools nowadays, and are very valuable provided opportunities are allowed for free imaginative play as well.

Perhaps from a rather narrow educational point of view the development of form perception is the most important. Before the child can master the early stages of reading and

learn to distinguish and match words he must learn to distinguish larger and cruder forms such as squares and circles and triangles.

I think, however, that the interest the child shows in such materials as form boards, peg boards, puzzles, graded cylinders, and the like, is not purely an intellectual one. Such constructive occupations seem to fulfil an emotional need also. From deeper studies of the minds of children made possible by psycho-analysis it has been shown that destructive and aggressive impulses are present in the unconscious mind of the child and are largely directed towards the parents, or rather the conception of the parents that the child has in his own mind. These impulses find an outlet in play and in such occupations as tearing and cutting paper, breaking up plasticene and in knocking down sand castles and block buildings. Any constructive activity that the child pursues may tend to 'make good' in the child's mind what has been destroyed in phantasy. This is just another instance of how closely emotional and intellectual development are linked. It seems probable too that in much of the child's manipulative play his phantasies are being played out, and his interest in such play is first determined by the pressure of his unconscious phantasies. As he becomes acquainted with the material, 'reality' or intellectual interests grow, and such pursuits are enjoyed for the mental stimulus they give.

Much stimulating psychological discussion has raged round the question of whether the under-five can reason at all adequately. The results of research work and of child study work of various types have, I think, shown that the normal pre-school child has very active reasoning powers but that his medium of expression is concrete rather than abstract. It is the logic of action rather than the logic of thought that he employs most naturally. The normally intelligent two-year-old is quite capable of dealing with a practical situation in a practical way provided that the terms of the situation are simple, immediate and concrete, and not too far removed from his everyday experience.

Child thinking differs from adult thinking in other ways also. His experience is much more limited—he will draw the wrong con-

clusions because he has not enough knowledge of the properties of materials in the external world. Secondly, his thought is more dominated by phantasy and is personal rather than impersonal. His unconscious mental life is more active and less controlled than in later years and he tends to see situations only from his own point of view.

The practical implications of these facts are that we can help the child to clarify his thinking if we give him real reasons for happenings, and distinguish always between fact, fiction and personal opinion.

Social-Emotional Development

Finally, we have to consider this all-important aspect of growth in the pre-school years. It is relevant to discuss social and emotional development together because the former depends so much on the latter. The little child needs to feel secure in his relationship to his parents and to be assured of their affection before he can be independent of them and accept the friendly advances of other children. Again, when he is struggling with his conflicting feelings in regard to his brothers and sisters, who appear to him so often as rivals for his parents' affection, he is likely to be hostile and unfriendly to other children also.

The period from 2-5 years is rather a stormy one. The business of growing-up and growing independent is somewhat painful. Children are very possessive and very egotistic. They resent interference with their own possessions and their own purposes. When they meet the clash of wills and interests in the Nursery School, difficulties are bound to occur. Normally, social development is from adult dependence, and aloofness towards other children, to hostility and aggressiveness to both adults and children, and finally to friendliness and co-operation to both adults and children. Such development is slow and marked by many setbacks. The child is often friendly with one child or a small group of children and hostile to others. He may be submissive, truculent or unco-operative with adults. Certainly it is very necessary to accept the 'hostile' stage without undue recrimination or retaliation. It is simply a sign of healthy development.

Certain emotional difficulties are so common as to be regarded as the rule rather than the exception. We may expect temper tantrums at two years, fears, night terrors, and feeding difficulties, especially at three years, conflicts with authority and difficulties in regard to social adjustment at four years. Thumb-sucking, enuresis, nail-biting and masturbation commonly occur during this period, and by far the best treatment is to ignore the symptom, try and remove the cause of the child's unhappiness which results in such symptoms, and provide interesting occupations for the child.

From experience of children whose development has not proceeded normally, we almost invariably find that circumstances in their early years have been disturbing and that the essentials of security and affection and normal discipline and freedom have not been given them. We find that the parents have been separated for a time, and when they try and come together for the child's sake that they cannot live harmoniously together. Children, who later become delinquent, are frequently illegitimate, unwanted, rejected children with many changes of foster homes in the early years. Severe illness, a disturbed weaning, the

unprepared arrival of the new baby, financial strain in the home frequently cause emotional disturbance to the little child, who in these early years has so little experience of the real world to reassure him that all will be well and that he can rely on the people around him to be friendly and loving to him.

Certainly the rôle of the parent and the teacher is a responsible one. If one is not prepared to shoulder the responsibilities one should not undertake them. It is wise to remember that little children are sensitive, impressionable, and often very exacting, and by no means always easy to live with. Perhaps a sense of humour, tact, tolerance and an inner personal serenity are the most important qualifications for parenthood or pedagogy. Our aim should be to help the child develop his personality to its fullest extent and to grow up in the true sense of the word. After all, this is what the child is striving to do for himself although he may not be able to express this desire adequately. A four-year-old of my acquaintance put her ambitions in the following terms: 'When I am a *lady* I shall have a pink dress and a pink hat and pink knickers and pink 'spenders and a pink powder puff.'

Rural Primary Education in the Cape Province

W. E. Lambrechts

Inspector of Schools, Cape Province,
Union of South Africa

FOR two centuries after the first European settlement, South Africa developed as a purely agricultural country. Towns and villages were of importance only as legislative, commercial, educational, and religious centres. The vast majority of the population was agrarian and its interests were rural. During the latter half of the nineteenth century the discovery of gold, diamonds, and other minerals brought a radical change. Our mineral wealth became an additional national resource and large numbers of the population migrated to the mining centres. During the last twenty-five years, and particularly since the Great War, industries have sprung up and developed

rapidly. A consequent revolutionary change is taking place in the distribution of the population. The difficulty of realizing substantial profits on agricultural ventures, the instability of the market for agricultural products, and the lure of fairly regular employment in towns are attracting crowds of the rural population to the industrial centres.

In the Cape Province the rural population has decreased to about thirty-five per cent. of the total. Whether this should be a cause for alarm is a debatable question. Granted that our social and political leaders have in the past originated from the rural areas; that agriculturists have been and still are the backbone of

the country ; that a healthier people, both in body and in mind, can be reared in the country than in the town ; yet a sifting process has perhaps been overdue in the interests of the rural people themselves.

The number of rural schools is decreasing, not only on account of the decrease in the rural population, but also because one-teacher primary schools are gradually being centralized. The one-teacher school served a very useful purpose in the past, especially in thinly populated areas, and will of necessity for many years to come be the only means of providing educational facilities in the inland districts of the Province. It cannot, however, fulfil the modern needs of a rural school. By conveyance schemes and boarding bursaries many single-teacher schools have been centralized into flourishing bigger schools.

In our educational aims we are leaving behind the stage where the chief problem was to ensure a minimum of schooling for every child and the elimination of illiteracy. We are now centering our interests on methods and devices which will lead the child to make the best use of his innate abilities. Moreover, a new type of cultural education is germinating, namely, an education which is cultural for the individual. The old traditional culture of the academic circles was tested for years but found inadequate, particularly for the rural child. Gardening, woodwork, housecraft can be made cultural for many pupils.

Differentiation is made between the primary education of the urban and the rural child. If the child's education is to be adapted to and inspired by its environment then, although the rural and urban child travel towards the same goal, they must of necessity move along different paths. To some extent the implanting of an urban school atmosphere into the rural school has caused a feeling of inferiority amongst rural children.

The standard of qualification for the teaching profession has been raised considerably. The minimum requirement now is four years' secondary education plus two years teacher training. Candidates for the profession are selected by the inspectors of schools at the end of the secondary course. At certain of the training institutions courses of a year's duration

in agriculture, in housecraft, and in handwork have been introduced. Such courses are of great value to teachers taking up posts in rural schools.

Teachers are allowed a great measure of freedom as far as the choice of topics and the arrangement of the syllabus in any particular subject is concerned. They are encouraged to draw up schemes of work, for approval by the inspector, which will suit their own particular conditions. Since 1934 the classification of pupils up to and including Standard V has no longer been done by the inspector, but by the teachers.

Health education has been made a compulsory subject in all schools. Not only are the children taught the elements of hygiene and physiology, but they are led to cultivate good health habits. A State scheme makes it possible to provide every pupil daily with half a pint of milk or an ounce of cheese. Our medical inspection has been extended so that schools are now visited regularly by departmental doctors or nurses. Indigent children are treated free for teeth, nose, throat, ear, and eye complaints and other minor ailments.

Daily broadcasts for schools partially compensate for the deficiencies of the rural environment. One of the tasks of the teacher of the rural school is to teach the child the art of making himself a happy being in surroundings which suffer from such a drawback as isolation. The radio has been found a helpful tool for this purpose.

Elementary agriculture has become an essential subject in most rural schools. We do not consider vocational training as part of the work of the primary school, but we do recognize agriculture as a fundamental factor in our national culture. Through our agricultural education we aim at instilling in the child a love for the soil, an interest in living things, and a desire for beautifying his surroundings. The practical work is usually of a twofold nature : firstly, the cultivation of flowers and decorative plants by classes or groups of pupils ; secondly, the cultivation of small plots by individual pupils. Great success has been achieved in the latter venture. Pupils take a personal interest and pride in their gardens and they enjoy the possession of a productive asset. They are

encouraged to deposit a fair portion of their profits in their savings accounts.

In a number of schools good progress is made in the teaching of elementary domestic science. In most cases the classes are conducted in the ordinary classrooms. Together with needlework this subject offers the principal opportunity for girls to produce creative handwork and to receive some instruction in home-making. The importance of this subject is immense, for the happiness of the home is to no small degree dependent on the attitude of the housewife. In the modern home, moreover, the educator of the children is primarily the mother and not the father.

As a parallel with needlework for girls, boys are being taught handwork. The type of work varies since schools have freedom of choice. They are encouraged to make use of materials

at hand and to use a minimum of expensive tools. The first aim in teaching this subject is not the development of art, but rather to give scope to the expression of creative thought. It is felt that the artistic tendency in the child should be discovered through his creative work, and that, when once discovered, it should be developed. It is further believed that our rural citizens should adopt an attitude of self-help. They should find more joy in constructing a farm gate themselves than in driving to the town to fetch a craftsman for the job.

The cultural awakening of the rural people is a significant event. In many cases the struggle for existence, which demands an ever higher standard of education, is the main incentive. The percentage of pupils continuing their studies beyond the primary stage is gradually increasing.

The Microphone in the School

W. Pearson

EVERY child desires to experience by imitation the feelings of other beings around him. The girl, in particular, asserts herself before a class of several of her companions and attempts to experience the feelings of her school teacher, or, alternatively, fondly caresses or harshly scolds her doll in the manner of a mother. The boy careers aimlessly about the playground making fearful noises. He may be on the footplate of an engine, at the joystick of an aeroplane, or at the wheel of a racing car or speedboat, one never knows. The child's method of expressing his feelings in such cases is easily seen from the movements and actions he performs. The 'let's pretend' method of teaching can surely be extended to the standard English of the wireless announcer and the child will readily attempt to imitate him given adequate facilities. Undoubtedly the modern radio interests the child greatly and his thoughts must often extend to the man at the microphone, but it is doubtful whether he ever attempts to extricate himself from the realm of thought and wonder and gratify his emotions in any practical way. Unfortunately, few children have the opportunity to experience

Hasland Junior School, Chesterfield

the feeling of being on a footplate or in an aeroplane, and there is no effective substitute for reality. However, with the aid of a microphone in school children can be given the opportunity to experience the feelings of a broadcaster. This method of teaching spoken English is not only interesting but has great educational possibilities.

Before explaining the use of the microphone, the technical details of the method of fixing it must be explained. The microphone itself must be efficient and of good quality. The 'G.E.C. Home Broadcaster' is both cheap and of sound construction. It works efficiently and is highly recommended. Naturally, more expensive models may be invested in and will probably be more sensitive and give purer reproduction. The instrument is attached to the gramophone pickup terminals of a wireless receiver or to an amplifying circuit. Should there be no pickup terminals on the set a wireless technician must be consulted as to how they may be fixed. As modern sets differ to such a great extent in construction it would be futile to indulge in these technicalities. Any attempts at explanation would probably have

disastrous results. Sound vibrations picked up by the microphone are amplified through a loud speaker attached to the set. On no account must the microphone and speaker be in the same room (unless, of course, the room is large) or oscillations will be set up. Should the speaker be permanently built into the set, then the microphone must be fixed in some other room. It is preferable, however, where possible, to have the microphone as near as possible to the set, and therefore the loud speaker must be in another room. In short, there must be a broadcasting studio containing the microphone, and a receiving studio containing the loud speaker, the position of the set being determined by its construction. If a small room is permanently available for use as a broadcasting studio, experiments in acoustics can be made. Curtains hung round the walls will prevent echo, and a cotton wool pad placed over the diaphragm of the microphone will improve the tone and quality of reproduction.

It is no difficult matter to persuade children to speak freely and say poetry in front of a class, but when asked to speak into a microphone they often become shy and nervous. Hence, apart from the mere physical act of speaking into a microphone, the child experiences a mental reaction of embarrassment. Thus on the psychological side, the microphone has the virtue of promoting self-confidence in speech. It is in oral expression, and especially speech training, that the microphone is of greatest value.

The teacher in the classroom unavoidably fails to notice many defects in the speech of the children. Grammatical errors and mispronunciations can seldom be missed, but faults in articulation and vocalization pass unobserved, particularly if the teacher is familiar with the same dialect as the children. A Southerner readily observes the lip laziness of the Northerner, but the Northerner seldom notices this defect in the speech of his fellow-countrymen. The deep 'u' sound in such words as 'come', poor articulation, laziness in such cases as the omission of the definite and indefinite articles are common errors, and are greatly amplified over the microphone. If the child's voice amplifies well, then one can rest

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assured that his speech is good. Clear reproduction of the voice calls for deliberate lip movement, and good articulation and vocalization without straining or forcing the voice. Subduing the voice slightly, with the mouth near to the microphone is far more effective than shouting some distance away. There is a great tendency for children to shout when trying to articulate clearly, but the microphone gives practice in talking quietly and clearly. Incorrect breathing is especially noticeable. The speaker can be heard to take his breath when near to the microphone, and one can readily observe the breathlessness, which often follows, after many words have been spoken without taking a breath at the appropriate point.

A more interesting use of the microphone, as far as the children are concerned, lies in dramatization. In addition to the advantages which dramatization offers in speech training, the parts may be read from manuscripts or books and no time is taken up in stage direction. Again, dramatizations, difficult to produce on the stage or in front of a class, are more effective over the microphone. With the aid of sound effects, left to the ingenuity of the teacher and children, the listener finds no difficulty in conjuring up a mental picture of the scene being portrayed. The sound of battles, trains, rushing torrents, galloping horses and the like can be effectively and easily produced.

Dramatization through the microphone offers a useful means of correlation with other subjects. Without costume or stage setting scenes from English history can be produced spontaneously with little waste of time. It is not much trouble to reproduce incidents from the lives of great explorers so that they retain all their vividness.

A child in his imagination will most suitably clothe his actors, provided they are not present in their Monday to Saturday suits and frocks. Many children, too, will spend a portion of their spare time preparing a little science or general interest talk, provided that they are to have the privilege of 'broadcasting' it.

The microphone can indeed take its place

with the wireless, cinema, and gramophone as a useful aid to education. It is a further means of equipping children to play their part in the world with ability and confidence, to express and to create, instead of feeling themselves to be but the tooth on a small cog of a great machine which is ready to crush all individual emotion.

Fellowship News

EUROPEAN CONFERENCE

Plans for the N.E.F. Conference to be held in Paris, from August 3rd to 10th, were considered and worked out in some detail at a meeting at the Musée Pédagogique on March 2nd. The French Section, which is bearing the greater part of the burden of organization, was represented by Professors Langevin, Piéron and Wallon, Mlle Flayol, Mme Hauser and M. Georges Bertier. Five other Sections were also represented: Dr. Zilliacus (Finland), Professor Bovet (Switzerland), Mlle Hamaïde and M. Smelten (Belgium), Mr. Kees Boeke (Holland) and Mr. V. Ogilvie (England and International Headquarters).

The theme of the Conference is *Teachers and the Attainment of the Democratic Ideal*. The purpose is not to hold a large-scale public Conference, but to make it a gathering of N.E.F. members and others who are closely allied to the movement, at which we shall face the critical situation of the world to-day and consider what attitude and action should be taken by the Fellowship in regard to this situation.

The problems to be discussed under this general theme fall into three groups. First, what we understand by the democratic ideal, and the methods to be employed if we are to attain a society in which this ideal is realized. Secondly, there are the problems that call for immediate solution through the participation of educators as adult citizens in public life. Thirdly, there are the problems of what we have to do by means of education to prepare for a democratic society, especially in the school and in the training of teachers.

INTERNATIONAL AUXILIARY COURSE

In *The New Era* for September-October and for December, 1938, some notes were published on the scheme for an international auxiliary course of training for teachers in elementary and secondary schools who wish to specialize in the use of progressive methods. The plan has already come into operation on a small scale in Holland and Belgium. It has also won the interest of the Institute of Education (London University), the Institut J. J. Rousseau (Geneva), and the Winnetka Graduate Teachers' College (U.S.A.), as well as of the N.E.F.

On March 3rd a meeting was held in Paris to discuss the further development of the Course. It was called by Mr. Kees Boeke (Chairman of the

**International Headquarters,
29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1**

Dutch Section, N.E.F.), the original promoter of the scheme, and was attended by the following: Dr. Elisabeth Rotten (N.E.F. Executive Board), Professor Bovet (Director of the Institut J. J. Rousseau), Dr. Reinhold Schairer (Institute of Education, London), Dr. Zilliacus (Chairman of the Executive Board, N.E.F.), Mlle Flayol and Mme Hauser (French Section, N.E.F.), Mlle Hamaïde and M. Smelten (Dutch Section), and Mr. V. Ogilvie (English Section and International Headquarters).

The outcome of the meeting is that plans are now on foot to develop the scheme in greater detail and to secure collaboration in the various countries through the assistance of the N.E.F. Sections.

HEINRICH JACOBY

On March 8th, at Headquarters, a small tea meeting was held to enable a number of people to meet Mr. Heinrich Jacoby, who is widely known in German-speaking countries for his researches into human aptitudes. Dr. Elisabeth Rotten gave an explanatory introduction, and then Mr. Jacoby showed a large number of drawings, illustrating his work, which he discussed with those present. His researches started some twenty-five years ago with the study of supposedly unmusical people. He found that even the most unpromising could be enabled to express themselves in music. He then carried his studies into other spheres, such as drawing, where the notion of 'gifted' and 'ungifted' is current. After experience with a very large number of individuals he came to the conclusion that, apart from born cripples, every human being has the necessary equipment for self-expression in any field of human attainment. The reason why a person 'cannot' draw or sing or do mathematics, for example, is not that nature has omitted to endow him with a talent for it. The reason is to be sought in another direction. His readiness for achievement is disturbed by something in his emotional attitude or behaviour, by some influence of early childhood, by something in his environment—in short, by causes affecting his personality as a whole. The essential, then, is to bring about a change of attitude, releasing the personality as a whole. To secure this result Mr. Jacoby has evolved a method of co-operative group work, which he carries out in the courses he conducts. He claims that those who follow these courses come to an unexpected level of achievement in their work,

in their leisure occupations, in their relations with other people, through a change in their attitude towards their environment, human and material. The sets of drawings exhibited at the meeting showed the extraordinary rise in attainment in this one activity which followed upon the release of personality in people of the most various ages and walks of life. Mr. Jacoby also has sets of gramophone records illustrating the change in speech and song. His aim and method are obviously of the greatest interest to educationists and psychologists, and it is hoped that the English-speaking countries will have an opportunity of getting to know them.

SPANISH CHILDREN

Since the fall of Catalonia the scheme for establishing Children's Cities in that part of Spain has been ruled out. The need for help is greater than ever, and the Office International pour l'Enfance, which was sponsoring the Children's City scheme, is bending every effort to do the best possible for the Spanish children. Dr. Zilliacus, during his recent visit to Paris, went into the matter and was deeply impressed by the efficiency of the Office International; he is satisfied that its work is carrying the maximum help, in the most suitable form, to the children whose need is greatest. It is also looking constantly to the future and planning to establish permanent care and education for the children. Headquarters has, therefore, felt that it would be meeting the wishes of those who so generously subscribed to its fund, if it divided the money received between the Office International and certain colonies for children which have been set up on French soil.

DEMOCRACY AND EDUCATION

In view of the widespread discussion of this urgent question in N.E.F. circles at the present critical moment, we would draw attention to the February issue of *Progressive Education* (our American magazine). Its general title is *Education's Present Responsibility for Interpreting Democracy*, and it includes notable contributions from, amongst others, W. Carson Ryan, W. H. Kilpatrick, George S. Counts, John L.

Childs, Lester Dix, Alice V. Keliher and F. L. Redefer. To make but one quotation: Professor Counts (whose new book, *The Prospects of American Democracy*, is reviewed in the same number) puts the challenge of Fascism in arresting terms. 'The friends of democracy . . . must strive honestly and effectively to apply democratic ideas, values, and outlooks to their life and institutions—bring economic power under popular control, harness the energies of technology to human purposes, root out every kind of special privilege, promote toleration, understanding, and brotherhood among races, people, and religions, conduct an unrelenting war on poverty, privation, and ugliness, prosecute the free and untrammelled search for knowledge in all fields, and engage positively in the building of a civilization of justice, beauty, and humanity. It is unthinkable that such a programme, if honest and vigorous, would have less appeal to the youth of America than the brutal and savage doctrines and practices, the tribal loyalties and worship, the racial and national hatreds, the sadism and persecutions, the cult of unreason and anti-science of domestic and international fascism.'

REFUGEES—TEACHERS

Readers are reminded that Headquarters would be glad to hear of—

- (1) families who need someone to help with children and domestic work (two very charming young teachers are at present on our list as well as a few aged about 40);
- (2) posts for governesses in private families;
- (3) posts for teachers of German in schools;
- (4) schools or families in or near London needing a teacher of French.

Will anyone 'adopt' a highly-qualified teacher (German woman) aged 60. She is too old to be allowed to work in this country unless someone will guarantee to be financially responsible for her. She is faced with destitution. Several people could join in such a guarantee. Another woman in the same plight is specialised in the education of backward children. Details from Miss Soper, N.E.F. Headquarters.

Book Reviews

Training in Prayer. *With a Foreword by the Archbishop of York.* (Rich and Cowan. Price 3/6.)

This book, which forms one of the 'Needs of To-day' series, is under the editorship of Canon Livdory Dewar. Both the art and practice of prayer are dealt with by various experts, and the result is a well-thought-out survey of the field. We are given sound advice on how to teach the art of prayer whether to infants or very young children, to adolescents or to adults. Prayer is considered, not only in its private aspect, but also in its corporate expression. It is remarkable that the writers have

succeeded in covering so wide a field in so short a compass. Yet the total effect is not one of shallowness.

One of the most hopeful points in its favour is the way in which the psychological needs of the child or adult are considered—indeed, this book is a welcome addition to the vast literature on the subject just because its compilers always bear in mind the actual conditions which make prayer so difficult an art for many. The Editor, who writes on *The Training of Adolescents in Prayer and Worship*, has many useful and wise things to say of the difficulties that beset us in the business of religion. And he points out how frequently these 'difficulties' are

personal though disguised as religious. Therefore if help is to be forthcoming it is essential that one should have a knowledge of the elementary truths of psychology in dealing with such problems. 'He who would help the adolescent to pray better must, above all else, be an understanding person'. What is true of the adolescent is equally true of the other ages with which we have to do.

Although the book deals with the prayer life of infants, boys and girls, adolescents and adults, it does not hesitate to lead the reader to a consideration of the 'higher flights'. There is a chapter on the more advanced teaching on prayer. We are thus led to face the evidence of the mystics and the heroic types of Christian saints whose prayer life speaks to us of the spiritual world which is open to all who will take the necessary pains to enter it. How this can be done and what hindrances will meet us on the road are clearly indicated. And we ought to be grateful to the various writers who have shed light upon the path we must tread from the cradle, through the grave to the Vision of God.

Verses with Tunes for Young Singers (with suggestions for movement), by Gwendoline E. Holt. (Banks & Son, York. Price 2/6.)

This book contains twenty-five short tunes and simple rhymes about things and events in the young

child's every-day experience, such as bouncing balls, swinging, trains, etc. The tunes are simply harmonised, thus bringing them within the reach of teachers, whose piano technique is limited. They may be used as songs, and the music repeated for simple rhythmical movement without singing, and they provide a useful addition to the repertoire of the nursery school music class. Several of the songs have a compass which I think is too great for the average vocal capacity of a child under six years of age. I find that small children are happiest with a melody that keeps within a six-note range. These go down to low B \flat and up to high F and have some big intervals. But if used with discretion, the book should be particularly useful to those teachers who are unable to improvise music for rhythmic movement.

M. A. C.

BOOKS RECEIVED

Through the Bible, by Theodora Wilson-Wilson. (Collins, 7/6.)

High, Wide and Deep, by C. Madeleine Dixon. (Allen & Unwin, 12/6.)

The Childless Family, Its Cause and Cure, by Edward F. Griffith. (Kegan Paul, 3/6.)

A Summary of Elementary Chemical Theory, by A. E. Be. (Oliver & Boyd, 1/8.)

Our Children and the Future, by Margaret L. Snell. (Student Christian Movement Press, 3/6.)

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Training for Leadership in the U.S.S.R.

Beatrice King

THERE are no special schools for the training of leaders in the Soviet Union. To select gifted children at a tender age, isolate them from the rest of the community, and force them intensively into a special mould is contrary to both educational and political principle in the U.S.S.R.

The Russians hold that all children, with the exception of those who are abnormal, are born with the ability to function well provided they are given the right environment. Except in the case of supernormally gifted and sub-normal children, the future of a child should not be decided before he is sixteen at the earliest. Any kind of selective process at an earlier age, whether by examinations, intelligence testing, or teachers reports, is held to be wrong.

Political principles even more than educational ones are opposed to such selection. The Russians have set out to build a classless society in which there shall be full equality. To train or breed leaders as a class apart, who will feel superior to the rest of the community, is opposed to Soviet Communism. Their leaders grow up with the people, work and play with them. The decree abolishing model schools is one of the many instances which supports the Communist claim of building a classless society.

There were a number of schools in different parts of the Union which, because they did particularly good work, became demonstration schools for their district. Later they became known as model schools, obtaining extra grants, the best equipment, apparatus, and staff. Gradually some of them became show places and exclusive establishments. Some of my readers may have visited School No. 25 in Moscow, which irreverent people called the Eton of the U.S.S.R.

In 1937 this was considered so contrary to Communist principle that a decree was passed abolishing the status of model schools and prohibiting the refusal of admission to any child within the school area unless it can be proved that the school is full. School No. 25 has been completely reorganized.

It is not until the age of eighteen that any one who wishes to take up political organization, special administrative work, etc., enters a special course of training. This is taken in a university which has various other courses too, and may last from three to five years. There are besides these courses party schools for adults.

I have said that there is no special training in early youth for selected groups of leaders, and yet on any demonstration or holiday, in camp or in theatre, in park or the school,

young leaders are to be met with at every turn. Whenever an emergency arises, youth answers the call. It is doubtful whether in those early difficult years after the revolution the country would have become so rapidly industrialized if it had not been for Soviet youth. The elimination of illiteracy, the success of collectivization owed much to youth which never spared itself. To-day, when life is much easier, the same enthusiasm and readiness to sacrifice is evident among Soviet youth. How is it done then?

By nature the Russian is rather like the Englishman in his dislike of being drilled and disciplined in a military fashion. He likes to acquire his virtues casually, and certainly is never solemn about them. As soon as the compulsion of insecurity and shortage disappeared, their intensive political training and the fervid propaganda, with its ignoring of facts that did not fit in and the distortion of information, disappeared also.

It is the atmosphere of the whole country, the social, moral, and economic organization of society, which makes Soviet boys and girls conscious of their citizenship, and which encourages the qualities of leadership in the young. Most emphatically those that show these qualities must live and work among the ordinary boys and girls sharing their lives completely. It is in school and in the out-of-school activities that those boys and girls who have a gift for leadership are given opportunities for the development of this gift and are encouraged to develop similar gifts among their comrades.

The four-year-old in the nursery-infant school who lays the table, serves the soup, observes that the room is tidy, is developing qualities of responsibility. But the Russians desire that all Soviet children shall acquire, in some measure at any rate, the virtues necessary for a leader. And so every child is given the opportunity of developing these virtues.

In school, which is compulsory till eighteen in urban areas, fifteen in rural areas (the latter is only temporary until teachers can be trained and schools built, when school until eighteen will be universally compulsory), self-government encourages those qualities necessary for leadership, while through the school work

an attitude is created which makes youth ready to fulfil whatever demands the country may make on them. All forms above Form III elect a class committee, which in turn elects the prefects or 'Starosti'. All the prefects unite in a school committee known as the 'Starostat'. The class committee is responsible in a measure for order, discipline, cleanliness, and decoration of the classroom. It is also concerned with the class work. By every means possible it encourages and helps pupils to do good work. The school committee discusses, with and without the Head, matters affecting the school generally, makes suggestions, takes decisions, and organizes extra-curricular activity. Then there is the patron-factory, in whose social life the school takes part. The school committee or class committee will provide cultural activities in the workers' lunch hour. This often means much organization beforehand.

The curriculum is designed to bring up well-educated people with all-round developed personalities. It includes all the subjects, except Latin and Greek, taken in our secondary schools, without the specialization at the age of sixteen. Everybody does a science (which varies with the different years), literature, mathematics, and one foreign language which is begun at the age of eleven and carried on to the end of the Sixth Form. For one year in the school period the subject of social science, which includes the study of Communism and the structure of Soviet and capitalist society, is taken. This gives the foundations for the citizenship training which is implicit rather than explicit in the whole education.

The most interesting development in the curriculum to-day is in history teaching, interesting because it shows the development of Soviet education away from a narrow crude propaganda, to what may be described in England, though not in the U.S.S.R., as a broad liberalism. More than any other subject it shows the growing tendency to objective truth encountered everywhere. Most interesting in this respect was the report of the Jury appointed to judge the history text-books sent in for the competition for a school text-book. The Jury criticized very severely those authors who thought they were showing Communist

zeal by ignoring the part which the introduction of Christianity played in the civilizing of Russia. 'This means ignorance.' The authors are further severely criticized for not acknowledging the great contribution to culture made by the monasteries when they were first founded. They are called to account for desiring to give children 'nurses' tales' instead of historical facts. The new Soviet history books make no attempt to ignore or minimize the achievements of other races and nations.

The whole of the education is permeated with the spirit of internationalism, and pupils are encouraged to acknowledge and honour the great men of other countries irrespective of race or creed.

I spent a morning in a very ordinary school in Moscow. Half of the literature lesson of the Sixth Form, one hour, was given over to me. I learnt that in the previous term they had produced 'Twelfth Night'. They celebrated Byron's centenary by a special evening when lectures, readings from his work, a play written by the pupils on incidents in his life, were given by the form. The literature syllabus includes Heine, Thomas Mann, Goethe, Boccaccio, Dante, Hugo, Molière, de Maupassant, Dickens, Kipling, Wells, etc.

Soviet education extols the virtues of peace, a constructive virile and vigorous peace. To the Communists war is an evil which, far from bringing out the virtues in human beings, lets lose all the vices and bestialities. They believe that life, not war, gives opportunities for courage, for heroism, for responsibility. But because they say that they are surrounded by enemies they must be prepared for defence. So the curriculum includes for one year, for two hours a week, military education. This covers first aid, gases and their antidotes, rifle practice, simple military intelligence and communication. Nowhere in the syllabus or the text-book is there one phrase glorifying war.

Learning and knowledge are held in high esteem. Accuracy and precision are demanded in all work. It is a matter of honour to do one's work well; and it is comradely to help those that are weaker. This sounds as though the children might be prigs. Those who have met Soviet children will agree with me that they

are far removed from priggishness. They are generally characterized by frankness and jolliness, and a healthy love for ice-cream as well as learning.

If there is any specific training in leadership it is given in the Pioneer organizations. The Pioneers are the Communist version of Boy Scouts and Girl Guides with many differences. First the organization includes boys and girls. There is nowhere throughout Soviet education in school or out of school any separation of the sexes, but complete equality between the two. Secondly, much more attention is paid to cultural education than to military education or the housewifely arts. The time spent by our Scouts in cooking sausages and peeling potatoes is given by Pioneers to literature and music and art, to visiting museums, to exploration expeditions, and so on.

Membership of the Pioneers is entirely voluntary, and is open to all boys and girls irrespective of social origin, race, or creed. No discrimination in school or out of it is permitted between Pioneers and non-Pioneers. Even in the Pioneer clubs non-Pioneers are admitted. Pioneer activities have to be made so attractive that children will freely join. They may do so at the age of ten; and may remain Pioneers until sixteen. At fourteen, if they wish, they can join the Young Communist League or Komsomol. While Pioneers number from sixty to ninety per cent. in the schools, members of the Komsomol are about fifteen to twenty per cent. of the age-groups.

The Pioneer work is in charge of a Pioneer leader who is a member of the Komsomol, generally a factory worker freed for this work by the factory. He or she is in constant consultation with the Head and staff. Difficult children are in the first instance handed over to him. With the help of the Pioneers the difficulties are generally solved. Every school has a special Pioneer room, decorated and arranged by the Pioneers, where the activities are carried on. The rooms in different schools are as varied as can be. Some are political, some very literary, some very artistic. They all have political slogans, and their banners and pictures of Lenin and Stalin.

The school is the headquarters of the Pioneer Otryad (Company) at the head of which is the

Pioneer leader. The company is divided up into links of six to eight children with a leader at the head of each link. The link leaders are elected and hold regular meetings with the Pioneer leader to discuss school and social matters which come within their purview. There is an initiation ceremony for Pioneers. Sometimes it takes place in the school, sometimes in the theatre of the factory club. Parents, representatives from the factory, from the local Soviet are present. One such ceremony that I witnessed was run entirely by six sixteen- or seventeen-year-olds.

A speech was made by a Komsomol, then the initiates came up on the platform, answered that they were always ready to serve the Fatherland, and received a red handkerchief which is worn over the white blouse tied at the neck. This over, a programme of music drama and dancing arranged by the Pioneers was given. There were about 1,000 boys and girls in the theatre attended by adults, who did not seem to be much use. The whole of the proceedings—even to getting a speech out of me in Russian—was managed without a hitch by the six young people on the platform.

The link leaders help with the organization of Young Octobrists, eight to ten-year-olds, whose activities consists of music, dancing games of all sorts, and stories about Soviet heroes.

In 1937 various recommendations were issued by the Communist Party for Pioneer work. One of these was to the effect that less time should be spent on politics and more on literature, classical and modern, Russian and foreign, on the arts, in visiting museums, etc.

The Pioneer holiday camps, in which six weeks of the summer holiday is spent, are an excellent means of training leadership. Here, as elsewhere, every member of the community is given some responsibility and is made to feel that he has a valuable contribution to make to the communal life.

The Pioneers have their own clubs, the central ones called Pioneer Palaces, the district ones called Pioneer Houses. Here youth can indulge in all its desires. There is provision for every possible activity under qualified supervision. Science research, the arts, sport, games, invention are all encouraged. In some

of the big Pioneer Palaces there will be as many as 2,000 children at a time. Order is almost entirely kept by the boys and girls themselves, and the results are admirable.

Besides these clubs there is a growing number of sports schools for those who wish to excel in these. Winter gives excellent opportunity for developing hardihood. Skating competitions and skiing expeditions are a great attraction. In the summer parachuting is one of the most popular of sports. In the parks there are towers of various heights for different ages.

The Pioneers are in the immediate charge of the Komsomol. The Children's Book Publishing House has been handed over to them with the happiest results. One of the first issues was Kipling's 'Mowgli Stories', followed very quickly by the 'Just So Stories', and fairy tales from all lands, in the gayest of editions, have followed each other very quickly.

There is a museum known as the Museum of Children's Books. Here come parties of young children to learn from books the meaning of a Socialist Society and Socialist Construction. The museum sends exhibits, many of which are in the form of games demanding a knowledge of literature, art, and music, all over the country. This was the most serious *political* education which I met. Here, too, the emphasis was on education for all, knowledge for all, and not on training a select few as leaders.

It is difficult to describe adequately a system which is so loose and varied and flexible as that of leadership training in the U.S.S.R. A really satisfactory idea of what is being done can only be obtained from a personal visit. Visitors are very warmly welcomed and all facilities are given them to go where they please and see what they wish.

The Soviet system is only twenty-one years old. The visitor is apt to forget this when criticizing the lower standard of attainment in secondary schools, as he is apt to forget that in 1914 Russia was seventy-two per cent. illiterate over the whole empire, and ninety-nine per cent. illiterate in many of the Asiatic provinces. The type of citizen the country will turn out depends a good deal on the international situation. If the likelihood of war diminishes, if the democracies become active for justice,

and peace and freedom, then the Soviet future citizen will be one of the finest in the world. But if the likelihood of war increases, if the democracies betray their trust, then the U.S.S.R. will be turned in on herself and the

Soviet citizen may develop the vices of arrogance, self-sufficiency, and a much greater ignorance of the rest of the world than he has at present, and some of the blame will rest with us.¹

¹ NOTE : The articles on training for leadership in Nazi Germany and in Soviet Russia published last month and this were planned to be accompanied by articles on the same subject from the U.S.A. Unfortunately, these have not arrived in time for publication, and the series is manifestly incomplete.

Do the Democracies need to undertake any specific training of their future leaders, and if so, how should they set about it? We see a variety of 'leaders' in the modern world who have had no deliberate training for the part. It seems probable that the political leader is in some sense an artist born, who uses his contemporaries as his medium and his environment as canvas. Democracy requires a different sort of leadership, undertaken quietly by many men of goodwill, whose purpose is disinterested, untainted by either fear or greed. It is likely that their directions to their followers will have a familiar ring: 'I send you forth as lambs among wolves. Carry neither purse nor scrip and salute no man by the way'.

We have seen Soviet Russia and Nazi Germany break the power of class prestige and evade that of international finance—two unquestionable feats on the material plane, neither of which holds any certain promise of spiritual growth, though both are essential steps towards social progress not yet achieved by the democracies. We see both régimes deliberately training their youth to be the custodians of their several adult ideals. None of the children so trained will be able to say 'When I was a child I spake as a child, I understood as a child, I thought as a child'. And none will have even a dim remembrance that the fruits of the spirit are love, joy, peace, long-suffering, gentleness, goodness, faith, meekness, temperance.—ED.

The Social Evocation of the Younger Child

Robt. K. Brady, M.A.

THE patient observation of many workers has made it clear that the mental life of young children is diffuse but intensely emotional; in fact it is so thoroughly charged with emotional stress that lack of sympathy on the part of the adults in whose care the child is placed can very easily result in the diversion of energies from their proper purpose, thus hindering the normal adjustment of the child to his environment. The child's life even up to the first signs of puberty is predominantly one of feeling rather than of logic. Lacking the consolations which cool reason and experience offer as compensation to the adult in his

hours of perplexity, the child is much the more prone to suffer ill consequences when his feelings are refused natural expression. He does not possess the record of past trial and error that adults have to guide him in his daily tussle with the unwieldy world that throws itself around him. Usually he just does what his instinct prompts, and from moment to moment he will seek satisfaction for the newest want he finds in himself.

As we all know, the child very often discovers that actual fact does not coincide with his wishes. In such a case his spontaneity is met by a reprimand, the childish smile fades before

the parent's frown, and the act which promised to be so pleasurable settles into his mind as a vague unaccountable feeling of pain. The rebuke, if he does not understand the reason for it, lingers within him as an injustice he has suffered; and even if the actual incident is soon forgotten a sense of disillusionment, a grudge, a fear of this world of happenings which he cannot account for, may remain within the texture of his spirit to impede his natural development. This feeling of dissatisfaction may have the most unexpected repercussions on the mental health of the child, and may reappear under circumstances which have no clear connection with the original circumstances which gave rise to it. For the human mind is not a mechanism like a motor where everything operates in given order and there is no reversal of activity, but has rather the nature of an organism like the human body itself where each part acts upon and is in turn acted upon by every other part, and all contribute to the welfare or sickness of the whole. The child must therefore be allowed to a great extent the expression of the ebullience his nature craves to release, and if this self-expression is not encouraged and wisely directed by the adults in charge much of value is lost to the child, and instead of attaining, as an animal will in proper time, the due balance of his instincts the child will become a thwarted human being, the healthy development of his emotions being retarded and in a manner of speaking diseased.

For too long a period responsible people remained blind to the complex troubles of the minds of young children. Even the most loving and proudest of parents could not but regard their offspring as so many little specimens of the race who were very liable to wander from the right path of moral observance. Even the youngest children were thought to be in constant need of moral direction, and it is the unfortunate fact that an attitude of stern discipline was generally adopted in their regard, the purpose being to counteract the evil tendencies which were supposed to inhabit the nature of the child. So long as the child was regarded primarily as a miniature adult, every care was dedicated to making a good and worthy adult out of him. The first aim of education was generally considered to be the

imparting of knowledge which would be of benefit to him when he grew up. The child lived in a world made by grown-ups to suit the convenience of grown-ups and speaking their language: in a world to which he was new and unaccustomed and the manners of which he was as yet unfitted by nature to comprehend.

What was wanting, then, in such an unsatisfactory state of affairs? In the first place an entirely new orientation of the relationship between adults and children. Since the child was unable to look upon his world from the point of view of the adult, the latter must try to see things from the point of view of the child; a solution which might seem easy to achieve since we have all in our time been children. As we all know, however, nothing is more difficult than to lay aside the experience we have gained as adults, or at least to escape from its influence, and become again even for an hour a child. We retain memories of our childhood, it is true, but they are of isolated facts and episodes. Our childhood we remember, but it is like looking through a troubled stream at something lying on the bottom there which we have once possessed. The child each one of us was is lost to us. Facts we remember; but the vivid, stirring, strange, and often fearful thing that our life was when we were children, this we can never adequately recall.

Yet once we accept the child as something in himself rather than a modification of the adult man, we are on the way to being of much assistance to him. Let us once allow the child for what he is, viz., a stranger among men and women, a new thing among those who are hardened by experience, a gay-hearted, wonder-stricken bundle of life who is opening his eyes for the first time on the Christmas decorations of the city of the world—admit this, and we have gone far towards making his life happy and valuable. We then understand that the child is by nature full of joy in all his approaches to life, ready to applaud and to be entranced by the wonders he so readily discovers. We likewise understand that a nature so beautiful must be extremely sensitive, and must respond more delicately than the rest of us to the world it touches.

Another thing we perceive is that all the

enthusiasm of discovery evinced by the child must betray a deep-seated perplexity within him as to the meaning of everything. The child may seem to accept the complications of the world without caring much about them, just as we ourselves when confronted by a new machine will not in every case try to understand its method of operation. Nevertheless, the child is finding every day new and even stranger situations which he cannot understand. It may be a punishment he has received, it may be a quarrel between his parents, or the death of a playmate ; whatever the cause he is often perplexed, feels 'funny' within himself, and desires more than anything else in the world at such a time a mother's solicitude or sweet cake ! Most important fact of all is that he does not know he is perplexed. His self-consciousness may not be well enough developed for that. As a rule a child worries without knowing why he is worried, very often without knowing he is worried at all. He just goes on feeling 'funny' inside.

This, then, is the secret we must firmly apprehend. To understand the problem of the child we must first admit that there exists a problem. We must begin to regard him as an entity, a self-contained human being having his own feelings, desires, and wants, although these are scarcely known to himself. We must open our eyes to the fact that a child is as vividly alive as we ourselves are. Why so many people even to-day are doing harm to the children committed to their care is not because they lack affection for the children ; far from it ; but because they lack understanding. They cannot see that a child, if he is to make progress in this difficult business of living, must be tolerably happy ; that to be happy he must live a natural life ; and that the only natural life for him is a child's life.

What is then the child's life ? The nearest approach to the natural life is for him to live in the company of other children. Nature has fitted the child only for the social life demanded by the social needs of its age. The conditions of the adult world are not fit for the nursery, any more than the food of the adult is assimilable by the infant organism. Left to his own kind the child will learn the social code in his relationship with other

children, and the only beneficent part the teacher or parent can offer is to be the arbiter in disputes, in which capacity, quiet and unobtrusive guidance can be given.

This brings us more properly to the subject of PLAY, which is the common expression of the social life of the children. In play the child learns how to use and control his energies, to overcome difficulties, to adapt himself to the rights and wishes of others. Thus, if grown-ups do not interfere, he will equip himself, by means of the self-education that play is, for the troubles and also the joys of adult life. The train has gone off the line, perhaps. Very well, on it must go again ! And without grumbling, too, because all the grumbling in the world won't move a wheel of it. Jackie doesn't like the building bricks put in that order—well, what is going to be done about it ? Ronnie is at least beginning to find out that other people can have different opinions, and (what is of most value to him), *different opinions about matters of the highest importance* ! He must learn to be patient then, and listen, and if he does continue with his own scheme he must give a good reason for it. And if there are others using the castle and drawbridge, he must wait his turn, no matter how irksome the delay may be. Then when he does get going, and especially if there has been a mishap and he has set it right again, he feels the satisfaction of labour rewarded and learns to value it. That is the important matter, viz., to set a value ! What is education if it is not to teach how and on what to set value ?

This community life of children, with communal play, seems to be the ideal training ground and the only natural life. Here all tacitly understand one another, while the different characteristics of their budding personalities introduce an appropriate variety into their social contacts. They learn not from one another but from the whole fact of their play. They all help to make the experience from which everyone draws benefit. In terms of their own limited environment they are learning the major lessons of the wider and more complex environment in which their later life will be led.

It will be found, too, that children bring to their play all the keenness of mind and spirit

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of which they are capable, often affording remarkable examples of shrewdness and fervour and devotion. But perhaps the most astonishing feature of children's games (to those who retain the view that the child has more than his share of devilment!) is the essential justice of the decisions made by children as a body. An abnormal child, such as a bully, can, of course, disturb the natural reasonableness of a game, but the common experience is that children in a body are just-minded, and very often extremely efficient in their treatment of wrongdoing. They are naturally willing to be organized, provided they see the reason for their being so, and I think schoolmasters will agree that children will more readily abide by the rules of a game appointed by themselves than they will if a master is present 'to ensure fair play'. Professor A. E. Taylor quotes, as an example of practical insight in children, the common saying when anything has to be divided evenly: 'You cut the apple and I will choose the half'. Could any adult improve on that?

Is it too much to suggest, then, that play is of the deepest importance in teaching the child how to be a man or woman? Play among children is nature's way of educating the child in the essential lessons of life. The nearer the imparting of learning by adults approaches the mental conditions of play the better it will be for the children. Progress to manhood or womanhood is slow and can only be profitably made in childish steps. The foal does not go through a course of instruction in how to become a horse. He learns for himself, by doing all the things a good foal ought to do!

There is a strong body of opinion that the new freedom for children promises to be more of a trouble than an asset. The people who assert this are not wholly wrong. There are already many abuses of the new freedom. Too often the cause of free education is invoked to cover a state of anarchy. There are too many supposedly progressive schools where the child, in being allowed freedom, is denied even ordinary guidance. This is wrong, and is as bad as saying that the tradesman painter should not show the apprentice how to hold the brush. In schools such as these we find the opposite extreme from the case of the parent

who believes that what was good enough for his father is good enough for his child. The people who abuse the new freedom, whether they do so consciously or not, forget that the child, although an individual in himself, is also a human being among human beings: he is an apprentice to the art of life. They should remember that an individual cannot afford to be an island in society, cut off from human commerce of ideas or social conventions. Contact with other human beings stimulates the individual and awakens his soul. Interaction is necessary.

In the case of children, the community life, for a great part of the day, of children of similar age should be encouraged as the most natural method of mental growth. The ordinary staple of school life—English, arithmetic, history, geography, etc.—should be greatly curtailed until about the eleventh year, in order to leave untrammelled the social evocation of the child in his or her proper *milieu*. Practice in reading and writing and a little in counting would be quite sufficient until the age indicated, and nature lore and, above all, folk-stories (which present in pleasant form the conditions of human life) are more valuable than all the so-called positive subjects that are taught in elementary schools. In the normal difficulties occurring from day to day advice should be given by the teacher. Better still, it should be implied, by the teacher's actually doing the best thing to do, without offering any high-sounding explanations. But the best state of all is attained when a parent or a school can provide an environment so truly in consonance with the natural requirements of the children, that it will *evoke*, of itself, their social instinct.

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Children's Lies

Edith Goldberger de Buda

THE fact that almost all children occasionally lie has always been a source of great anxiety to parents and teachers. Many are the sinister prophecies made as to the future and the moral development of these little 'sinners'. Let us say it at once; these dark forebodings and prophecies are, mostly, unfounded, though they are apt to bring about the result which parents and teachers try to prevent.

There is no need to enlarge upon the difficulties that arise out of our social life. The bewilderment, we may even say the shock that children who are told to speak the truth at all costs experience, when they hear grown-up people tell 'white lies'—an experience that children could often be spared, if adults were less thoughtless and lazy—is probably known to all of us. A careful watch on ourselves, a kind and satisfactory explanation given to the child, when such complications are unavoidable, are the best means of dealing with such situations.

The educational problem of children's lies is certainly not to be overlooked. Social life would, no doubt, be all the better for a generation brought up to tell the truth, if humanly possible. To tackle this task we must try to go into the matter from a psychological point of view. The obvious question would be: Why do children lie? But this searching for causes and reasons does not always get us very far, when we are trying to understand human nature. We may find some of the causes of the problem we are trying to investigate, but we never know whether we have found all of them or, which is more important, whether we have found the basic ones. It is difficult and problematic to come to a real and complete understanding in this way. Whereas, if we put the question thus: what is the aim and object of this child's lie? we are likely to get an answer that will greatly help us to understand, and, consequently, to mend things. There are two principles contained in this way

of putting the problem. *The first is the teleological attitude towards the problems of life in general.* As life is, to a great extent, dynamic and as movement—except in cases of abnormality such as chorea—is always, consciously or unconsciously directed towards a goal, surely the best way to understand the different forms and stages of this movement is to try to find the goal towards which it is directed. *The second principle is to look at every being as an individual in its individual situation*, knowing that individuals are different as well as situations, and that the influence of circumstances upon one person might differ widely from that of the same circumstances upon another, thus making generalization in this matter a doubtful road to a successful understanding of the problem.

Looking at human actions and reactions in this way, we will now endeavour to understand the situation of children who lie. But first we must distinguish between the very different kinds of lies that children tell.

At a certain stage of development almost all children begin to tell things that are not true and go on doing so for some time. The beginning and end of this period vary greatly according to the general development of the children's minds. Some begin at four, some earlier, some later. The length of this period is still more variable and very much depends not only on the child, but also on the attitude that parents, nurses, and teachers adopt when dealing with this matter. What are these stories like that children tell at this time? The most primitive form is, for instance, that Tommy hides behind a cupboard and exclaims: 'Tommy not here, Tommy lost!' No adult will be alarmed by this 'lie'. But if Tommy, when he is a little older, tells long stories about his having been lost in the woods and having been rescued by fairies, or, later still, about his having uprooted a tree with his bare hands and gone to war against a deadly enemy, and so on, they are apt to take a more serious view

of the matter, and often admonish him not to tell stories, to speak the truth, etc.—an extremely unwise thing to do. Tommy is mostly unaware of the fact that what stands so clearly before his mental eye and is able to produce very real emotion is not reality indeed. Real danger and imaginary danger bring about the same emotional result. It is this emotion which convinces Tommy of the reality of what took place only in his imagination, as his experience cannot yet have taught him that it might be an answer to imagined as well as real happenings.

The havoc we can work in the mentality of a child by forcing him to make a distinction which he is not able to understand may be great indeed. If we apply our precept of looking for the conscious or unconscious aim of everything, we can see that these 'lies', which may be called *imagination, or phantasy lies*, are no cause for alarm at all. On the contrary, they are necessary and useful for the development of certain important mental faculties.

In his famous book, *The Games of Children and Animals* (Spiele der Kinder und Tiere), the German psychologist, Karl Groos, comes to the conclusion that all these games are only a training for the necessary activities of life. These 'imagination-lies' are certainly no voluntary perversions of the truth, but may be considered games of the children's phantasy. To check them by moral arguments, which at that stage of its development cannot be understood by the child, might mean stunting the growth of a most important part of the child's intellect. The endeavours to make the child stop these 'lies' may even have almost the opposite result. As the adult's viewpoint cannot be understood by the child, admonitions of that kind are likely to call forth an attitude of opposition which makes the child keep to this sort of lying much longer than is normal. Under very great pressure the child would very possibly become a habitual neurotic liar.

On the other hand it ought not to be forgotten that an over-indulgence in such imaginations might very easily lead to day-dreaming as an escape from the difficulties and problems of life. Though we may safely say that a child who has met with the necessary amount of

encouragement—and here, as in all matters of life, the paramount importance of encouragement must be stressed—is more likely to tackle difficulties than to flee from them, we must, first of all, set ourselves the task of educating children to face the realities of life. By studying children carefully we should certainly be able to substitute active games and work for their fairy-tale dreams. Unless they are indulged in excessively, such stories help to develop phantasy and do good instead of harm if properly handled.

Now let us turn to what may really be termed 'children's lies', the lies that are conscious and intentional perversions of the truth. These we have once more to divide into two groups: the first of these groups comprising the lies which are told to avoid disagreeable consequences, the second encompassing those, the purpose of which it is to deceive the other person deliberately, to get the better of him, and so to feel superior.

No need to say much regarding the first of these two groups. No father, mother, or teacher should be so severe as to make the child afraid of taking the consequences of any of his actions. Punishment, if it be necessary at all, should never be so hard as to drive the child to lying in spite of its moral inhibitions. (Not to speak of endless nagging and scolding, which many children dread more than any punishment that might be inflicted upon them.) The more courageous we can teach the child to be the less it will choose the easy way of lying and evading; there is often a very hard struggle between the child's innate truthfulness and his fear of consequences. If these consequences are but bearable and the child is given the right encouragement at the right moment, lying will disappear in an astonishingly quick time.

It is queer that our second group of real lies should cause so much perplexity and anxiety to many educators. They throw such a very clear light upon the whole situation in general and especially upon the respective positions of educator and child. Nobody wishes to get the better of another person unless that person makes it clearly felt that he considers himself superior. A friend and comrade is rarely cheated, but to get the upper hand, where a

master is concerned, means sometimes pure delight. This deliberate lying and deceiving is nothing but abasing the other (in one's own mind, at least), it ridicules him and pulls him down from his high pinnacle of superiority. To the satisfaction of having thrown the superior being from his pedestal is added the positive self-feeling of being courageous and brave, because of the risk of being found out and punished. This is the spirit that often induces great and small to break laws and rules : instead of being understood as necessary regulations of social life they are felt to be arbitrary commands of superior despots, and it is brave and sporting to break them. The inference is clear : the less the parent or teacher assumes an attitude of superiority the less children are likely to lie to them. This does not mean that people in authority are to be nothing more than the play-fellows of the children. A certain superiority and even reserve is necessary to make the child safely trust himself to the other's guidance. But the adult's attitude must be based on judgement and experience and not on the use (or is it not often the abuse ?) of power.

And here we must mention another important item : the child's belief in the educator's wisdom and knowledge is an all-important

factor in education. But the claim to infallibility on the part of the educator mostly brings about the result of children's losing faith in him altogether. For confidence once shaken is not easily regained, whereas the calm admission that we may sometimes be mistaken makes the child all the more trustful in us when we give definite and assured information. It is the same when children lie to us. If we pretend that we cannot be tricked, that we are omniscient, so to speak, the child will quickly find out that this is by no means true, and, furthermore, feel particularly elated at having got the better of the god-like being. If we admit that we might easily be deceived the child cannot derive any pleasure from imposing a thing upon us against which we offer no resistance. Moreover, a sense of loyalty often prevents children from lying to people who trust them. The aim of all these lies is to overthrow power and abolish pressure. The more inferior the child feels the more fiercely will he struggle against anything that strengthens his belief in his own inferiority and insignificance. Lies and deceit are weapons of the weak in the battle against oppression and enforced authority. Let there be no pressure and no demonstrations of superiority, but rather guidance, judicious encouragement, and active sympathy.

Why I Chose to Specialize in Science

Theresa Ashton

WHY did I choose at school to specialize in natural science? It is a question I have often asked myself and been asked : since soon after making the choice I became more and more interested in the arts—and now write.

It was the custom at my school (a well-known girls' day public school) for members of the matriculation forms to go to the second mistress, when the examination was over and while the results had yet to be announced, and state the subject or subjects in which specializa-

tion was desired if the girl were successful and intended staying on after matriculation.

I remember almost with shame how I said at the interview : 'I want to do natural history'. These words are the clue in the explanation of my choice. Two questions arise. Firstly, why did 'natural history' mean so much to me? Secondly, why was I so lamentably ignorant of science as such : why had I almost no knowledge of the gulf between the science of examination syllabuses and the laboratory and my 'natural history'—the source

of an ecstatic freedom which had begun in childhood and had continued to the age of nearly sixteen?

The mistress replied: 'Oh? You mean natural science?' Ignorant and half-timid, I agreed; the neat notes of the mistress had a disturbing finality. But what was I really saying?

I had as a child lived in what was then the country, close to fields and a wide lane. The fields were grazing, oats and root-crop fields; almost every one had a pond in a corner. The natural life was abundant and varied in the small area within my reach.

As a child it was only through the natural world that I had knowledge of an animated, passionate existence; of the profundity I began to need at an early age. Other experiences—my preparatory schools, child-flirtations, friendships, parents—were 'wrong', inessential or outside myself. This I felt strongly at a very early age. An only child, I did not wish for brothers or sisters. Usually I preferred to play alone.

But my love of natural things was not only an inchoate love of beauty. I was interested in facts. I examined the parts of flowers and learnt much of the system of natural orders with the help of simple books, as soon as I could read well enough.

As I have said, the value of 'natural history' continued into adolescence; and emotionally (on the positive side) and aesthetically it was still the most important experience. The books of naturalists, chiefly W. H. Hudson and Richard Jefferies, confirmed and developed the experience. Together this literature and experience were the nucleus of my vague ambitions. I did not, however, make any literary effort.

'I want to extend my life according to the fullest experience I have known.' This is what I was really saying.

The most important factors, apart from inherent ones, contributing to my ignorance and immaturity were: insufficient acquaintance with adults rich in understanding; unhelpful parents; the methods in competitive education; and the fact that I had learnt very little botany at school and no zoology.

What were my abilities, likes and dislikes,

at school? And what choice might I have made if the methods of teaching had been different?

At Latin (Greek was taught only after matriculation to classics specialists) I was backward, because I did not know any before entering the school and had been placed in too high a class. French (girls not specialising in modern languages could take German if they wanted to and if the lessons could be fitted into the time-table of special subjects) made me ill at ease, partly because my pronunciation was bad. Geography I liked and was good at. History interested me very little; the people and events were not real. I was good at algebra and arithmetic, much less good at geometry. I was slightly afraid of all mathematics. I was frightened of not understanding the first explanation; during my first years at school the teachers in this subject had been impatient.

The lessons in English during pre-matriculation years did not differ much in general from the lessons of the matriculation year. In the three years after matriculation the English lessons gave more chance of individual expression. Subjects were sometimes set for the general essay which would not be found on university entrance examination papers; and books of imaginative criticism were included in the reading-lists. In these years I sensed in myself more literary power than I had before; but not sufficient to make me think I should have chosen English. In fact, none of my various interests—developing at this time chiefly through reading—made me think I should have chosen differently. My dissatisfaction was vague.

And visual art? At Cambridge I was much interested in all visual art: and thought of being an art critic. Usually art at school quickly tired or irritated me. I could not make representational drawings—except when the objects were flowers or twigs. At college I turned to a free form of drawing (I could not paint) for my own pleasure. It was part of an overwhelming phase of aesthetic development; and I do not draw now. But it was of vital educative value; and together with some study of modern art it broke down the inhibitions of art at school.

Possibly I was more slow-growing in nature than is usual. Yet with a different education I should perhaps have been less afraid and better able to examine my inner uncertainties—the inertias or withdrawals and the positive outgoing movements of my mind; have known clearly at school that I was creative.

Specialization, much to my disappointment, did not mean freedom from disliked subjects. I was still doing two subjects I thoroughly disliked. I had learnt with dismay at the interview that I must do physics and chemistry for any university entrance examination. I had disliked the elementary lessons in these subjects before matriculation and had been glad I need not do them for that examination. They were too mathematical—and the chemistry mistress was a bully. The dislike continued, but by hard work my standard in these subjects was not far below that in botany and zoology; at college I was able to take geology as a third subject instead of physics or chemistry. At school I liked botany and zoology. But after the external London intermediate examination at the end of the second year I had learnt most of what was necessary for the Cambridge entrance examination, and in the last year I took less care with my biological work.

The 'natural history' was mostly lost, though the mere factual knowledge was useful. Other interests were forming. 'Natural history' was incompatible with science. My parents had moved to another house, surrounded by houses and not so close to the country.

Self-division at school was unrealised; at college it was fully realised. My whole impulse was against specialisation in any subject. Specialisation was killing something valuable in me. What that something was I did not know; but it could be partly defined by what I did *not* want to do. I became guiltily engrossed in the things that interested me, and did the minimum amount of work sufficient for second-class successes. The conflict was severe. Parental expectations of success could not be forgotten, and I was tormented by the problem of a job.

How far was the choice a mistake? To-day, ten years after making it, I do not consider it a serious mistake, or even a mistake at all. In

some ways I consider it a good choice; it may also have been a propitious escape.

Specialization of any kind would have been distasteful. Yet one form of advanced mental training I had to have. Except for the fact that a less incomplete knowledge of English literature would help me now in my work, possibly the actual form of that training was immaterial in the long run. What I wanted was in any case a thing of slow growth—philosophically speaking, ultimate understanding. Furthermore, advanced science cannot be self-taught, and much knowledge of other subjects can be self-gained. From the point of view of general knowledge and a training for self-education the scientific education is invaluable.

If I had made the correct choice at school and read English for a degree (I was too backward at Latin to choose classics) I should not have escaped 'Eng.Lit.' How long would it have taken me to disentangle myself from its restrictions? Because I did not make the correct choice, my appreciation of literature has been free in its development.

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The Empire Article Exchange Society

IN an article upon Geography Through Contact in the November number of *The New Era* mention was made of the Empire Article Exchange Scheme run by the Dulwich Central School Geographical Society. This scheme is now converted into a Society and opened to membership from schools throughout the Empire. During four years of experiment seventy schools have joined the scheme, each compiling a set of articles, written by children, upon their lives, the district in which they live, and the work which goes on around them. Each of these sets presents a living and vivid picture of the school district with a success which is far greater than could have been anticipated. Thus children from Portree Secondary School, Skye, write articles upon the geography of Skye, its legends and history, the crofting system of agriculture, peat cutting, herring fishing, lobster fishing, tweed-making. Indian children, from St. Gregory's High School, Dacca, in Bengal, send accounts of the history of their district, its geography, the occupations of its people in the fields and the villages, the games which the villagers play, folk customs, including homes and clothing, the village doctor, village law courts, songs and snake-charmers, education, religious customs and ceremonies, and details of the local flora and fauna. The value to the children who make such studies is very great, especially when they know that their work is to be read by other children all over the Empire, while the educational value to the children who use them is obvious, especially from the geographer's point of view. The personal note which is found in almost all the contributions is well exemplified by this extract from an article upon 'Cotton Growing in Uganda', written by W. K. Sewanyana, of King's College, Budo :

'When seven months have expired and the pods burst open and a white substance is visible and then the most wearisome time is reached. At this time rain is not wanted by the growers and some pessimists grow sick when they see a single cloud in the sky because it may mean rain and this dirties the snowy lint. Everyone tries to pick as much

cotton as possible each day and meals are very often ignored. Children separate the clean cotton from that which is dirty. Practically nobody visits his friend unless he has come to borrow some money which he expects to repay when he has sold his cotton, Old lorries are mended and new ones purchased. It is the time that everyone knows for certain that he is getting some money. It is not uncommon to hear that Mukasa, who was ill during the planting season, was found picking his neighbour's cotton during the night.'

Each year between fifteen and twenty sets will be duplicated and sent out to member-schools in March, July, and December. In quantity this will be equal to an average book of 400 pages. In March distribution this year sets include contributions from Pleasant Point District High School, New Zealand ; the European Primary School, Kitale, Kenya ; Pioneer Mines School, British Columbia ; Portree Secondary School, Skye ; Irthlingborough Council School, Northamptonshire ; Queen's College, Georgetown, British Guiana ; Seodin Primary School, Kuruman, British Bechuanaland ; the State School, Charleville, Queensland.

The Society, which is run on simple lines by an Honorary Secretary, is open to all schools on payment of an annual subscription of 10s. It is understood that all member-schools will contribute a set of articles themselves in due course. Further particulars can be obtained from the Honorary Secretary, J. B. Dempster, Dulwich Central School, Peckham Rye, S.E.22.

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A School Wall-Newspaper¹

David Young

Greater Felcourt School

‘WHAT about publishing a Weekly Wall-Newspaper?’ I was speaking to St. Christopher’s second senior company, a group of some eighteen boys and girls. I explained that if the original articles—either written neatly or typed—were pinned upon a notice board which could be seen by all in the school, then there would be no need to make any copies. My proposal was accepted at once and we set to work to discuss our paper’s title, its contents, and who were to be the editors.

Actually, the school secretary and I had gone seriously into the question of making copies of a periodical, and it was she who had suggested making it a wall-newspaper. The customary complications involved in producing a magazine, the enormous work involved, the high cost, distribution, and sales difficulties are all solved by this simple idea. The manuscript magazine, which is circulated from hand to hand, is a possible alternative, but it takes far too much time to get round and does not appear so important as something that can be read simultaneously by several persons.

The only suggestion for a title that I can remember came from a boy. His idea was to call it ‘Mr. Young’s Weekly Calligraphic Register’. It is not one I should have chosen myself, but the others agreed to it and it was adopted.

We arranged for a different editor each week. There were about enough willing to be editors for each of us to have one turn in a term. This plan gave opportunity for initiative to the maximum number of pupils and lent variety which kept interest going throughout the school. People would probably get bored with a permanent editor. As I was the staff responsible, each issue was shown to me before publication. Only once was it necessary to veto anything. Usually suggestions and advice were welcomed.

One boy was elected to make the necessary notice board, and he made it very promptly

and well. We managed to keep the whole thing a secret so that its sudden appearance was marked by much curiosity and interest. Crowds collected and continued to do so for the rest of the day. Besides the Editorial, there was an interview with the Headmaster, information as to what the companies were doing, remarks about school topics written in a light-hearted manner, and a mathematical problem.

Then in later issues there appeared cartoons, letters to the Editor expressing strong opinions on school questions, accounts of cricket matches, a literary competition, some original illustrated jokes, and a few advertisements of forthcoming events. One boy, using the pseudonym of ‘Snoop’, made quite a name for himself by regularly writing his opinions on school affairs in an ironical and amusing way. Sometimes there were special numbers. For example, one whole issue was devoted to photographs of the Staff as babies. A Walls’ Choc-Ice was offered to the one able to identify the most.

Contributions were accepted—indeed warmly welcomed—from anyone at school, though the majority came from the company responsible. The day of publication was eagerly awaited, and interest remained until the end of its second term, when I left St. Christopher. I hear that the paper continues in a revised form under the title of ‘Edition Seven’—this name because it is published in Room Number 7, where its company meetings are held.

Felcourt School, where I am now teaching, has certain times set apart for ‘Activities’, for which suggestions are welcome. I proposed that the school should produce a periodical wall-newspaper and the suggestion was accepted with enthusiasm. We decided that it should be issued fortnightly so as to allow a week’s rest in between the issues. This plan has worked well and I can recommend it. I think that anything longer than a fortnight would spoil the continuity of interest.

The size of the board is six feet by three. At

¹ A description of an activity in progress at two Schools—St. Christopher, Letchworth, and Felcourt, East Grinstead.

first I thought this rather ambitious, but so far it has always been filled with contributions. The title *Enterprise* was chosen by a vote in 'Break', taken amongst those interested enough to come to a special meeting called for this purpose, and the project has lived up to its name; as many as thirty or more sheets, quarto size, of original work are published each issue. Contributions have included (in addition to items similar to those already mentioned) a few poems, some short essays, many stories, several serials, imaginary dialogues, adventures abroad, and a number of other interesting experiences, drawings, paintings, lino cuts, reports of school activities, photographs, old students' news, a crossword puzzle, and an information bureau willing to answer almost any questions, serious or otherwise. A number of these have been regular features, which

greatly help to keep things going and are decidedly popular. For example, a report of an interview with someone at school is *expected* each issue, and interest is taken as to who the next person will be.

There is an editorial Board of three which changes each fortnight, so that all who wish can take a turn. The Board usually consists of either a senior pupil or a member of the staff, together with two others somewhat younger. The arrangement seems to be working well and I feel that this is a very important aspect of the whole project.

A wall-newspaper could be started by anyone in almost any school. It is just the right sort of thing for adolescent development. It is certain to be a success, provided there is *some* mental energy and interest left over after the calls of academic work.

A Basque Tea-Party

E. E. Twine

WE have at our school a very vigorous society called 'The League of Nations Pioneers', whose activities are inspired and directed by an untiring optimist. Towards the end of one term, when each week was becoming more crowded than the last, she announced to her weary colleagues: 'I have discovered that there are some Basque children in this area. The Pioneers want to invite them to a party.' Her firm tones and bright expression annihilated all protests and she received the reply she had decided to extract: 'Yes, of course! What a nice idea!' And permission having been obtained, preparations began.

Ours is a large central school in an industrial area, said until recently to be 'depressed'. Few people are depressed at our school, but most of the girls are very poor. However, when the number of poor girls is large and they have kind hearts, sturdy determination, and some imagination, it is wonderful what can be accomplished. We had to plan carefully and first to count the cost. There were about fifteen Basque children, and to bring them and their two guardians to the party meant several shillings in railway fares. So this had to be collected in very small sums indeed. Then a

**Spurley Acy Central School,
Rotherham**

good meal must be provided, and, we thought, a small present for each child.

The invitation was sent and accepted and contributions from the many hostesses began to arrive. We decided that ingredients rather than bought food would be most economical and then the cooking could be done in the domestic science lessons. Bags, and even half and quarter bags, of flour, little packets of sugar, cocoa and currants; butter and eggs and oranges were spared from weekly stores of many households. Then two dolls were brought and dressed as twin babies, and a cot was made for them, complete in every detail. From the staff came small toys and articles children love to possess.

At last the day arrived and two eager Pioneers set forth to meet the guests at the station while the rest set the meal and decorated the room. When finished, they surveyed the scene with pride and delight. 'Good enough for Princess Elizabeth' they said, for at the centre table was a lovely iced cake bearing its message of welcome in pink, and the plates were piled with delicious scones, cakes, and tarts, all made by themselves.

Basque children like hot chocolate and

orangeade, so these drinks were provided—an exciting departure from convention. Round the large cake in a vivid rainbow circle were packets of home-made sweets enclosed in bags of brightly coloured art paper. Jars of flowers and festoons across the room provided the finishing touch to this festive scene.

Hardly had the hostesses stepped back to admire their handiwork than the word went round that 'they' were coming up the drive. Full of excitement the Pioneers came forth to greet their guests. If tongues were tied it was not from shyness but from inability to speak one another's language, so they did what smiles and handshakes could do and led their new friends to the banquet. We decided to leave them alone, thinking that barriers would be more easily broken down without our inevitably official presence and so most of the staff who had stayed to assist bore off the two adult guests—one a weary, sad faced Basque lady—to a more secluded meal. A few waited near at hand to help, if need be, with the children. But no help was needed and soon peals of laughter rang out from the feast, chattering voices, so well known, blending with the unfamiliar tones. Echoes of the conversation sounded like Babel.

The meal over, we went in to find a jolly party of comrades making signs and gesticulating with much hilarity round tables bearing empty plates. Soon we trooped into the hall where a little programme had been arranged,

but before we could set this going the children had had an idea and there was a stampede to classrooms where paper and pencils were found and an exciting new game began. They divided themselves up into pairs or small groups and all signed their names for one another and made little drawings, writing English and Spanish names underneath. Such laughter on both sides this produced! This was followed by mutual attempts at pronunciation and more laughter. Then songs were sung by hostesses and guests in turn and national dances given—the Basque children singing in lieu of pianoforte accompaniment. We tried some easy Swedish dances for all, which were soon learnt, and all joined in some of our simple ring games. Time was rushing on and there was a train to be caught, so the dolls and toys were presented to a very appreciative little group of guests, making up with their beautiful and expressive eyes what their tongues lacked. There was much hand shaking—each with all—and nearly tears at the thought that such delightful new-found friends must part—perhaps for ever.

And as we watched them file off to the station I think we ourselves felt a catch at the throat and a little fall to earth as we looked round at the empty school where just before we had caught a glimpse of something which transcended the usual gaiety of a school party and formed a dramatic contrast to the world conditions which had actually brought it about.

Writing for Pleasure

Nina Rosetti

West Heath School, Sevenoaks

A YOUNG and apparently fairly progressive English teacher asked me the other day what I usually set for essay titles.

'Anything', I said, 'I go on until I've suggested something they all like. They often use their own titles. They usually write stories, of course.'

'Oh,' she said, 'Don't you ever set subjects for discussion, things they have to argue about?'

'If they ask for it,' I said, 'among the older children.'

'Hm,' she grunted disapprovingly, 'I always

crushed this tendency to pour out stories, instead of getting down to it. It always annoys me when I know they can do so much better.'

I made an indiscriminate noise and retired from the discussion. Yet, as she appeared in some ways progressive, I began to wonder if there had been something lacking in my methods—whether the children had been failing to get down to it. It took me about two minutes to decide that this was not so. Whatever ways of teaching composition I may adopt in the future, I am certain that a term

and a half of complete freedom in choice of subject and treatment have not been wasted. When a child leaps in her seat, eyes sparkling, and says, 'That's good, I know what I can say about that', she cannot be accused of not getting down to it.

I do not, if I can help it, stop suggesting titles until the eyes of every child have lit up with enthusiasm, or I have seen an idea dawn on all their faces. This needs considerable inventive power, and mine sometimes fails. But theirs usually steps into the breach and someone says, 'I know, I'll write about a meet.' Or someone else says, 'Why don't you write about night—the still of the night?' Or they shelve the question, saying, 'I'll wait and see what I feel like when I am doing my prep', and the next day they produce an account of how they tamed a squirrel in the woods, or a story to illustrate 'Lord, what fools these mortals be'.

More than inventiveness, it needs a feeling for the class, to be able to suggest the things they want to write about but cannot think of for themselves—to follow up and crystallize their fumbling suggestions. 'I'll write about Scotland', said one Scottish girl dubiously, 'How long was Mary Queen of Scots in prison?'

'Eighteen years', I said, and added to stimulate her, 'She had to be moved from prison to prison because her gaolers kept falling in love with her.' Her eyes sparkled. 'Oh, well, give me a title.' I reflected and said, 'Eighteen years a captive?' She looked disappointed. Then I had an idea which would appeal to her love for Scotland, 'English Justice?' She jumped, 'Ooh, that's lovely.' They always demand to be given exactly the right subject for the mood they are in.

'Can I have another title?'

'But you've got a lot,' I object.

'Oh, yes, I know,' she sighs, 'I've collected them all up in a book. There are ninety-three. But I want another.'

'Well, what about Disaster or Star-dust?' She is happy and produces a good story.

At first it seemed that there would be too little variety, that they would write only one kind of essay, which they were interested in or found they were good at. I soon found this to be untrue if I encouraged all their interests.

They work out their ideas and try all kinds, description, narrative, argument. One girl had a taste for thrillers and demanded them every lesson. I began to wonder how long it would last. After five or six weeks I said, 'Let me see, you want blood and thunder?'

'No,' she said, 'detective stories have lost their charm for me.' 'What do you want then?' 'Something about horses—I know, I'll write on "To horse".' And she did. She has also written about a yachting race, an ice-bound ship, and mists on the Himalayas. They all revealed detailed and accurate knowledge as well as considerable literary skill. Another girl, who spent a term writing exciting adventures in African jungles or shipwrecked boats, suddenly decided to try her hand at something else, and produced really good descriptions of 'London after Dark' and 'A Summer Evening'.

I am often amazed at the versatility and imagination of the children. They are partly stimulated by something I always do at their demand. I read most of their essays aloud. They insist on it, and are bitterly disappointed when I leave any out. I read as many as I have time for because, apart from their enjoyment at hearing them, it benefits their writing enormously. They are more appreciative than critical, but they point out bad faults of style and weaknesses of plot and logic, and they notice the parts which sound well when read aloud. I am continually noticing tricks of style, phrases, vocabulary, incidents, situations, which they borrow from each other and adapt to their own use. Moreover, they learn a considerable amount from each other. They look forward to hearing each other's essays as they do to a new novel. I do myself. And, because their writing is so stimulating, we are making a collection of stories from the whole school into a volume. Unfortunately the cost of having them duplicated is prohibitive, as the volume will be a long one. But they are all copying out their own, to be bound and passed round the school. Each class chooses what they want of their own to go in, but the contributions of all the other classes will be new to them. We shall all find the volume as interesting as any collection of modern short stories.

Whatever I do in the future, so far this method has worked. Children who loathed composition when I began, and groaned at the very word, now clamour to be allowed to write more, and produce really good work. 'I should never have thought of writing all this before,' they say. One girl, who a term ago could scarcely write a sentence without a bad grammatical error and was incapable of thinking out a coherent plot, glowed with pride the other day as the class listened rapturously to her latest story, of which I had not had to correct a single word. Several others, who wrote well to begin with, have practically filled an exercise book each, in six weeks of this term.

Naturally, this outpouring of ideas is not incessant. There are times when someone says, 'I don't feel like writing. I don't know what to say.' And she does not write for a week. I brighten things up occasionally by giving amusing exercises in vocabulary, logic, and five-minute composition. But this is rare, because they mostly dislike being taken away from their own writing. The thirteen and

fourteen-year-olds are perhaps the most fluent and enthusiastic, but I have found older children respond rapidly to this freedom. A post school certificate class, whose writing had been cramped by having to practice examination subjects, are just beginning to thaw after six weeks. They have lately written original and good work, in syntax, style, and attack far ahead of their previous writing. That is what is surprising in everyone's work. I encourage fluency and exactness in expressing ideas and they soon begin to write correctly. With no specific teaching, their punctuation, spelling, paragraphing and phrasing improve by leaps and bounds. Naturally, I suppose, because they are anxious to get their ideas on paper as quickly as they can. They are learning to use language as they should, drawing on all the resources they can to express their present ideas and emotions. I think they will find it useful long after they have left school. As for exams, and for writing an essay on a set subject, I would back them against any class trained in formal composition.

Fellowship News

**International Headquarters,
29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1**

EUROPEAN CONFERENCE

As the international situation deteriorates under the hammer-blows of Fascist aggression, the prospects of democracy within the countries which still claim to be democratic grow more and more depressing. For, to meet the external menace, the governments of these countries demand for themselves more and more absolute power over their 'subjects'. The danger which is looming up is that, for the alleged purpose of defending democracy against Fascism, our democracies will be transformed into semi-fascist states. If this process takes its course, education will be degraded to the position of an instrument in the hands of the powers that be.

Such is the crisis that is confronting democracy and education alike. It is to face this challenge that the N.E.F. is holding a European Conference this summer.

What do we mean by the democratic ideal? Why have we failed to create real democracies? What are the forces that have overthrown democracy in Germany, Austria, Spain, and elsewhere? How can we avert such an overthrow in the remaining democracies? What have we to do to make our democracies real? What can educationists do, both professionally and as citizens, at this moment when their very function is at stake? What contribution

can the school make? What part can the N.E.F. play?

These are among the vital questions which will be discussed at what may well be the most important conference the Fellowship has ever held. The Conference is to take place in Paris, from August 3rd to 10th.

SCHOOL MATURITY TESTS

When should a child learn to read and write? The decision should surely depend, not on the parents' ambitions, but on the child's readiness. More is involved than the attainment of a certain level of intellectual ability or the manifestation of a certain interest in words and numbers. There must also be, for instance, the ability to concentrate long enough to write words and read sentences. But that is not all. Investigations at the Nursery Schools and Kindergartens in Vienna have shown that success in formal lessons depends on a number of other factors as well, such as the right attitude towards the carrying out of tasks, and that the readiness for school work is rare before the age of five and a half or six. To start teaching a child to read and write before it is ready for it often means that a long and weary time will be spent on the job, and it may also occasion difficulties in the

child's subsequent school life. By the use of the Buhler developmental tests it is possible to state exactly when any particular child is ready to profit from formal teaching.

These notes have been summarised from an article by Miss L. Frankl. She would like to get in touch with schools and parents with a view to advising them on the right time for each child to begin formal work. Address: 40 York House, Turks Row, London, S.W.3.

PAUL GEHEEB—L'Ecole d'Humanité

Friends of Paul Geheeb will be interested to hear that he has opened a new school at Chateau de Greng, near Morat, Switzerland. The opening took place at a gathering of friends on April 16th. We wish him and his collaborators all success in the new venture.

REFUGEE TEACHERS

(1) There are still teachers in Germany and Austria urgently in need of a helping hand. They

need offers of employment which will allow them to get out of their country and give them some means of living while they make arrangements to emigrate elsewhere. In their own countries they are in considerable danger, and ways of getting out become ever more difficult. Three cases (men) have appealed to us for help. One is a teacher of secondary school subjects, the other of primary school subjects; the third is a teacher of music and singing.

(2) A Czecho-Slovakian girl of 15 years (Jewish) needs a guarantor.

Posts (mother's help or nursery governess) still wanted.

Please write to Miss C. Soper, N.E.F. Headquarters, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

Music Teacher

Readers who attended the N.E.F. Conference at Cheltenham will remember the excellent music provided by a quartet, of which Miss Luise Minden was a member. She is now in London ready to give lessons in Piano, Harpsichord, Clavichord, Flute, Percussion Band and Community Singing. Address 101 Hillsborough Court, London, N.W.6.

Book Reviews

High, Wide and Deep

In *High, Wide and Deep* (George Allen and Unwin, 12/6), C. Madeleine Dixon has written a book which is of the greatest interest to parents of young children and Nursery School teachers. The chief problem of these early years, especially in the case of only children, is the adjustment of the growing personality to the world around it. It is here that the Nursery School is able to help by providing the child with companions of his own age, for his development is in the hands of his contemporaries. Hitherto the world has been his own, filled with grown-ups only too ready to supply all his wishes; now he finds others with equally strong desires and dislikes. His reactions when first introduced into a group are described with insight.

The fundamental needs of a small child are set forth; the need for stability, rhythm—the rhythm of effort and rest, of excited discovery and lazy uneventfulness—and regularity in his life, and the opportunity to experiment and create. The primitive heritage of aggression and desire for combat which requires release and the need to communicate fear are fully discussed, and an outlet suggested through drama and dance. Miss Dixon considers that adult anxiety not to dominate play has tended to throw too much responsibility on children and to overburden them. She indicates the point at which the teacher should step in with an idea to start their game. She points out the necessity for slowing down the modern tempo of life and giving children time to plumb the depths and to realise the slow process of evolution. Above all, she makes a strong plea that the all-important capacity for wonder shall not be lost.

There are interesting chapters on language (including 'nonsense words' and chants), dance, music, drama, painting, clay, etc., and an extremely helpful one on how to deal with any difficulties arising from a young child's natural interest in his bodily functions.

Under the title 'Non-adjusting Children' Miss Dixon writes of the bully, who is usually working off a hurt previously done to himself, the braggart, the child who gives way to tantrums and the selfish child. She always probes beneath the surface to the causes underlying these manifestations, and suggests a sound and sympathetic way of dealing with them. Of discipline she says, 'I have a deep belief that children learn firmness for themselves by being exposed to firmness and clarity', and points out the steadying, calming influence of the inexorable 'no', from which there is no appeal.

Parents are warned against the prolonging of infancy, treating children as equals, or over-stimulating them and stretching them beyond their capacity. The dangers of this last are all the greater because the child appears willing and responsive, having found that by this means he is able to gain the attention and approbation of his parents. The importance of co-ordination in the child's life is stressed, for 'these two environments, home and school, are neither of them separate considerations. Only when we overstep boundaries between home and school, and school and home, in our understanding do we really help children to live fully as children and subsequently as grown-ups.'

The book is illustrated by charming photographic studies from the camera of Robert Imandt and Mary Kellett.

P. Harvey

Education for Citizenship in Elementary Schools, with forewords by Earl Baldwin, of Bewdley, K.C., and Kenneth W. M. Lindsay, Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education. (Oxford University Press, 4/6.)

The Association for Education in Citizenship, which is responsible for this book, can count it as a major achievement. The Association is helping educators to realize that negative freedom, setting children down in any particular environment and leaving them to it, will not necessarily produce first-rate people. Something more positive than that is needed from educators. A conscious effort, a conscious direction towards the goal is demanded from the teacher.

The book contains invaluable contributions from practising educators to this problem of training in citizenship. But the contributions will only be valuable if read critically, well digested, and discussed. To adopt another teacher's methods wholesale is to court failure. Unless the teacher puts something of his or her own individuality into a method, it will be dead, and being dead will call forth no answering spark of life.

It was an excellent idea to get specialists to write on the teaching of citizenship through their own particular subject. Its drawback lies in the impression of competition between subjects that this method gives. It cannot be too strongly emphasized that there is no competition between subjects, there is only co-operation. Similarly the impression given by some that citizenship is something that can be taught successfully and conclusively during the school life is probably due to condensation of material. In this respect perhaps the contribution with most truth and wisdom comes from Mr. Greenough and is to be found in the appendix. I cannot resist quoting: 'The sentiments which are at the basis of good citizenship develop as we live. The love of truth, freedom and service—the corner-stones of democracy—are therefore not to be acquired through the occasional participation in certain activities specifically organized for this purpose.' This is recognized by other contributors but there is the danger that in the enthusiasm for one particular aspect of citizenship the whole may be lost sight of.

While some of the writers realize the limitations set by the immature age at which their pupils leave school, others tend to make too great intellectual demands on the children. The value of all the contributions might have been enhanced if the raising of the school leaving age to sixteen with no exceptions, had been urged more resolutely. The suggestion of one author that the work should be continued in old scholars' association is excellent. Its drawback is that the number which attends old scholars' activities is very small and just the ones that need the training stay away. I should like to cross swords with Mr. Hutchinson whose article may have the effect of discouraging the very virtues of citizenship he wishes to encourage. I refer to the lumping together of Communism and Fascism as

though they were exactly the same. While some unlovely features are common to both the Soviet State and Fascist States, a knowledge of the two countries will show how wide apart they are. A comparison between the writings of Communist leaders and Fascist leaders would add considerably to the stock of knowledge, a knowledge which might be increased by a realization that the Soviet State at present is only socialist. It is a long way yet from communist. As many of the writers remark, it is very important to guard against prejudice.

A most moving and sincere chapter is contributed by Cumberbirch on Moral and Religious Education for Citizenship. But just because of its deep sincerity and faith it can call forth serious criticism. I can imagine a rationalist saying 'You people who believe in religion and above all in Christianity forget that the majority of the world's peoples are not Christians. You forget that there are a great many rationalists who are as sincere and honest as you.'

If we are really concerned with teaching children to be unprejudiced, to be honest thinking, to be critical, should we not tell them about all religions and about atheism and rationalism, and leave them free to choose their belief for themselves? Should they not be told that a belief in God is a purely personal thing based on faith, that for two thousand years Christianity has been preached and it has not succeeded in making people Christians? I am inclined to think that only if you do this will you be giving honest training. If you don't do this you are merely carrying on propaganda. All of which only goes to show how hedged about with difficulties is the path of the educator.

Finally, this book is the most stimulating I have read for some time, and I am personally very grateful for its publication.

Beatrice King

Simple Science in the Home, by Charles F. Smith, D.Sc. (Oliver and Boyd, 2/-.)

Within the scope of 125 pages, the author has attempted to connect some of the common experiences of everyday life with underlying physical laws. He writes primarily for children who, for various reasons, are unable to benefit from a systematic course of Science.

Numerical treatment is avoided and simple analogies are made use of freely throughout the book. Most of these are apt and helpful, but a few are definitely misleading. In attempting to give simple explanations of scientific phenomena there is always the danger of giving false impressions. The chapter on electricity is unfortunate in this respect. Now and again the author has allowed himself to imply conscious motives on the part of particles of inanimate matter, but such lapses are rare.

The book has a great deal to commend it. It is written in a way which is simple and attractive, enjoyable to read, and easy for children to understand. Its approach is practical throughout, and the domestic use of water, coal, gas and electricity is admirably dealt with.

C. D. L. Brereton

The Republic of Children, by Leslie Paul.
(Allen and Unwin, 1938. Price 7/6.)

This book achieves the purpose it sets out to achieve: to provide a handbook for teachers of working class children. Teachers—not in the sense of school teachers, qualified according to the standards of State examinations and paid for the almost impossible task of 'educating' forty children in a classroom; no, teachers of a voluntary kind, recruited from all trades and professions, but united in their desire to build up a working class children's movement, capable of 'turning out fine bodies and critical minds for the task of building a better society'. This book has much to offer to the serious educator who realises the limitations of education under our present system of society, limitations due not only to a lack of equal opportunities for working class children, but to its class-spirit (worse even in its secondary schools). The better we understand these limitations, the more urgent will we consider the need for a movement which at least provides an opportunity for making use of the leisure time of our children in their own interest and in that of a juster society.

Leslie Paul shows in a comprehensive and convincing manner—from the social background as well as from the nature of the child, the understanding of which has been made so much easier by Freud's discoveries—why the labour movement should be concerned about developing such work with children on the model of the 'Woodcraft' groups. In building up the work it is as essential to learn from the success

of the Scout Movement, which produces the 'good citizens' for the preservation of the existing order, as it is to learn from the mistakes of movements like the Socialist Sunday Schools for whom 'only the doctrine was of importance' and 'the nature of the child did not matter'. But the author does not only show the need and the tasks of such a children's movement; he proves that 'it can be done', not only on the Continent (where, unfortunately, the successful children's movements, especially in Austria and Germany, were crushed together with the whole of the labour movements by Fascism) but also in this country. This book is a *practical* handbook as well as a theoretical one incorporating valuable and ample experience and suggestions on the various aspects of children's lives.

The future of this work, as Leslie Paul rightly points out, depends not only on the interest and financial support which the adult workers' movement is willing to invest in it (so far the Co-operative Movement has been most helpful), but also on its ability to produce its own leaders who are capable of improving and carrying on the work. 'The slowness of its development is almost wholly due to the lack of leaders.' Some schemes for such training of group leaders are briefly indicated. But this vital problem is certainly not dealt with satisfactorily or exhaustively. An attempt at solving it would lead to some deep educational problems of importance for the whole labour movement, as generally for a solution of the questions of democracy and leadership.

Mary Saran

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

General Science : A Plea for its Adoption

J. A. Lauwerys

University of London,
Institute of Education

The Beginnings of School Science

No subject in the curriculum changes more quickly than Science. Advances and discoveries are continually being made, inventions like radio or television attract the interest and attention of pupil and teacher, new developments make it necessary to change syllabuses that they may reflect more accurately the present state of our knowledge. All this necessitates hard work and vigilance on the part of the science teacher, but the need for making such changes in the content of his courses is only the least part of his troubles. For school science is more closely related to the changing social pattern than are most other subjects. In consequence he is faced not only with the need of keeping his knowledge up to date, but occasionally with the demand for alterations so far-reaching that they involve a complete remodelling of syllabuses, the teaching of matter with which he may not be familiar, the adoption of new aims, a new spirit and new methods.

This labile condition is both a handicap and an opportunity. It may, and perhaps does, involve a lessening of immediate class-room efficiency, but it makes it easier to adapt the work to changing needs and conditions. In a time of rapid change, lack of tradition is a positive advantage ; for traditions are a crystallization, a hardening into a set pattern

which is not necessarily of permanent value. The history of science teaching shows very clearly the way in which it has reacted to changing social conditions. And it illustrates, also, how well-meant efforts may be stultified through the pursuit of mutually incompatible ideals. It is thus both a guide and a warning.

Systematic attempts to teach science, outside the Universities, were made in this country during the second half of the eighteenth century. At first it was frankly a utilitarian business ; the courses offered, under Rumford, at the Royal Institution like those later arranged by the Mechanics' Institutes, were attended chiefly by artisans desirous of improving their skill and of using the new materials then being introduced. In the schools, progress was naturally very slow—for educational reforms are introduced only with great reluctance and against powerful opposition. Furthermore, the Public Schools of the nineteenth century tried to educate administrators or country gentlemen, and not craftsmen or engineers : no one then supposed that an understanding of modern ideas or of modern techniques was relevant to the problems of government. When, therefore, science began to be taught in schools, the aims envisaged were chiefly descriptive and religious, and traces of the influence of those diverging aims are still embodied in the teaching of to-day. The

pupils were taught 'natural philosophy' and astronomy, together with a little zoology and geology, so that they might find interest in the natural environment and so that they might better understand proofs of the existence of God and present them more satisfactorily.

The Nineteenth Century

But doubts regarding the relevance of our educational system to the new conditions soon arose. The 1851 Exhibition, at which British industry was only moderately successful, led to the foundation (in 1853) of the Science and Art Department which, in its time, did much to foster the introduction of science into our schools. The Public Schools Act, which empowered the Public Schools to alter their statutes so as to permit the teaching of science, was passed in 1868. This was a year after the somewhat conspicuous failure of British industry—financed and directed by men largely ignorant of Science—at the Paris Exhibition.¹

These moves reflect the growing awareness of the determinant rôle which science plays in the life of an industrial nation. And, as one would obviously expect, the kind of material used for science teaching reflected both the industrial preoccupations of the pioneers and the timidity of administrators anxious to placate possible critics. Inorganic chemistry and chemical analysis were given a place of honour—it was just about the time when artificial dyestuffs and fertilizers were being introduced. Physics consisted largely of 'Heat' (effect of the steam engine) and 'Optics' (memories of Newton), while Electricity played only a very minor rôle. Biology was practically ignored—a subject with which Darwin and Huxley were connected was obviously too controversial and not quite respectable.

It is worth stressing these considerations. For many people, even teachers, believe that there exist rational bases for curricula and for syllabuses. In fact, they are usually the result of compromises and embody little more than concessions reluctantly made by vested interests. Later on, reasons may be found—usually are found—for justifying what has been done. Teachers, and educators generally, have a

marvellous facility for making idiocy appear sweetly reasonable.

The pioneers of science teaching probably believed that they were going to produce a scientifically minded generation capable of harnessing the powers of a new age to the service of man. But it soon became obvious that the study of science in schools had far less effect on the character and personality than had been expected, say by Spencer or Tyndall. It was not even having much success in helping to produce efficient technicians.

The Heuristic Movement

The growing discontent was expressed very strongly, even violently, by Professor H. E. Armstrong in the closing years of the last century. Armstrong was profoundly dissatisfied with the knowledge and outlook of the students who came to South Kensington to study chemistry under him. They knew very little science—and that little was largely of the wrong kind; they were clumsy experimenters; they relied largely on books and on teachers; they were unable to tackle by themselves even the simplest problems. As a result of this slackness and incompetence English manufacturers were falling further and further behind their competitors. Artificial dyestuffs had been discovered in Britain, but the Germans were making them. An Englishman had made the first dynamo, but electric lamps were first manufactured in the United States.

The cause of all these troubles, thought Armstrong, lay in the predominantly literary bias of our education. The cure was to be found in a thorough-going reform of teaching method. Science was being taught in an anti-scientific way: the hand might seem hairy, rough and muscular, but this was only make-believe. Inside the deceptive glove there was soft and polished smoothness. The teacher of science still taught dogmatically: he stated rules and illustrated them by specific examples; he relied on chalk, talk and book instead of test-tube, balance and experiment.

But true science is an activity, and does not reside in books. It consists not in learning words, but in doing experiments; not in accepting dogmas, but in questioning them;

¹ See Richard Palmer's essay on 'Science and Modern Education' in *Education for Democracy* (Macmillan, 1939).

not in studying books, but in studying nature. Armstrong therefore asked that the research spirit should dominate the school: every lesson should take the form of the simple investigation of a problem. He asked that the pupils should be left to their own devices far more than was fashionable, and urged the importance of practical activities and of individual work. These demands he embodied in the famous 'Heuristic Method'.

The obvious good sense of these ideas, which were expressed in forceful, and occasionally virulent, language, gained for Armstrong a fair measure of success. Many excellent teachers became convinced upholders of Heurism. Up and down the country large and well-equipped laboratories were built at considerable expense. It seemed to many that the dawn of a more rational system of education was at hand.

The Defeat of Heurism

Yet this success turned out to be only a Pyrrhic victory. For Armstrong was beaten in the end, chiefly by the operation of three factors. First, by the continued dominance of the fashionable (though misinterpreted and largely untenable) Platonic philosophy. For scientists are strangely inconsistent. In their laboratory or study they are empirical, pragmatic, materialist. But when they try to interpret their results to non-scientists, or evaluate them philosophically, they often talk as though Science draws aside veils which hide the true reality from our senses. This makes them overestimate the value of theories, and ascribe to them an ontological validity which they do not possess. The result, in teaching, is to make teachers believe that no science course is of value unless it leads up to and includes a study of such hypothetical constructs as atoms, electrons, etc. Armstrong's heuristic method does not easily square with all this—it is too scientific.

The second enemy which heurism failed to overcome is the school text-book. With the advent of a national system of secondary education, catering for hundreds of thousands of pupils, the writing and publishing of text-books has become a very profitable affair, and the royalties of the Epigoni dwarf those of a

Todhunter. Unfortunately, text-books often prevent those who use them from being heuristic. The reasons are obvious: the answers to the problems can be found by turning over the pages instead of by the tedious route of experiment; they encourage facile acceptance of dogmatic assertion ('the book says so'); and they canalize and restrict free enquiry.

But above all, Armstrong was beaten by the growth of the examination system, which imposed rigid syllabuses and made teachers attempt the enthusiasm-dulling task of teaching an ever-increasing amount of stuff at a rate which made dogmatic teaching inevitable. In a word, Armstrong was defeated by the scholastic spirit—idealist philosophy, dogmatic interpretation, books, writing.

Sympathy with heurism should not, however, blind us to its defects. The general spirit which animated Armstrong was, no doubt, sound and philosophical, and it was appropriate to the social needs of an industrial age. But in the details of his proposals he was, perhaps, less sound. For instance, as was natural to a writer and thinker forty years ago, he had overmuch faith in the automatic transfer of an understanding of scientific method to the problems of everyday life. He thus tended to lay far too much stress on exercises of a logical kind, and he was prepared to include in the syllabuses he proposed, matter the presence of which could be justified only on logical grounds. And he underestimated the importance of putting into the courses material useful, interesting and important in itself, even though it had little value as training material.

'Science for All'

It was the recognition of the importance of this which led to the next advance. It was becoming clear that the kind of scientific training available¹ was of little use to pupils who had no intention of pursuing their studies at a university. Such pupils, it was said, needed a kind of science which was 'cultural

¹ Twenty years ago boys usually studied chemistry and 'Heat, Light, and Sound'. Girls often selected the more lady-like botany. Both content of course and method of study were stereotyped and formalized. Pupils were expected to repeat experiments which were comparatively uninteresting and consisted of little more than mechanical manipulation according to rigid instructions.

rather than disciplinarian', and by this was meant a treatment of science which was somewhat more in contact with the actualities of life ; which laid stress on general principles rather than on particular details ; and which included at any rate the elements of astronomical, geological and biological studies. Such a course, it was thought, would be suitable both for those who wanted science only as a part of their general education, and even for future specialists.

A subject of this sort is not very pleasing to specialist teachers, and raises new difficulties for examiners. Therefore comparatively little progress was made except in a few favoured schools.

Meanwhile, it was becoming obvious that educationists and teachers could not long afford to neglect the claims of biology. For, on the one hand, greater concern with public health and social hygiene led to a demand for the inclusion of this in the curriculum from the general public while, on the other hand, an increasing number of jobs was becoming available for trained biologists. The position of this subject was now very similar to that of chemistry sixty years earlier.

In addition to this demand for the study of biology, educational thinkers had ceased to be satisfied with the fashionable ideas regarding transfer of training. They no longer thought that disciplinary values resided in the subjects themselves, but felt rather that it depended on the manner of study. In consequence, increasing attention began to be paid to the content of the course, and the new views received support from the interest aroused by the many new scientific applications made widely available by the Second Economic Revolution (radio, motor cars, electric stoves, lamps, etc.).

All these tendencies have united in a demand for the adoption of 'General Science' in our schools. Those who believe in the teaching of this subject (if we can call it that) urge chiefly two things. First, that neither biological nor physical science must be excluded from the education of young children. Second, they urge the replacement of logical criteria of selection by social criteria ; that is to say, they believe that the content of the scientific

curriculum should be chosen with reference to the social value of the topics included, because they are so uncertain of its logical training value.¹

Professor Hogben² has well stated this social criterion as follows : 'A course in general science designed to meet the needs of citizenship must reinstate confidence in the human reason, reinforce constructive social effort and give the citizens of to-morrow a vision of what human life could be if the treasury of scientific knowledge were dedicated to the satisfaction of common human needs. If it is to do this we must lay aside our preoccupations as specialists and find a common ground of agreement in our common needs as citizens.'

Objections to General Science

When stated as generally as this the claims of general science are admitted by everybody. No one disputes the potential value of biology in helping the adolescent to meet his needs and to adjust himself to life in an adult community.³ And even the most hardened theoretical specialist does not wish to waste his time over trivialities and futilities. But, nevertheless, arguments have been urged, the cogency of which it would be unwise to ignore.

The most common objection urged is this : Though it would be wise to teach Biology 'if time allowed', the shortness of the school hours and the multiplicity of subjects which have to be catered for, make it impossible to allot more than six or eight periods a week to science. This being so, it is desirable to restrict attention to one or two branches only and these should preferably consist of physics and chemistry. For these are subjects which lend themselves easily (under school conditions) to an experimental treatment by individual pupils, which clearly exhibit the importance of the quantitative approach, which are industrially of the highest importance, and which illustrate peculiarly well

¹ Or perhaps one might say that they believe that any sort of scientific material can be chosen for training ; therefore, choose socially valuable stuff and use that in preference to stuff of little value apart from its use in training.

² In *The Teaching of Science in the Education of the Citizen* (National Union of Teachers, 1937).

³ With reference to this see the P.E.A. Report on 'Science in General Education' by the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum (Appleton Century Company, 1938). This is probably the most vital and important document of its kind so far published.

A MODERN INTRODUCTION TO SCIENCE

A FOUR YEARS COURSE FOR SCHOOLS

by **W. P. D. WIGHTMAN, M.Sc., Ph.D.**

Head of the Science Department, The Edinburgh Academy

and **A. O. CHESTERS, M.A., B.Sc.**

Assistant Master, The Edinburgh Academy

It is here assumed that the aim of the school science teacher is to guide the pupil to give reasoned answers to the questions to which his own curiosity naturally leads him ; to show him how to discover whether his answers are real answers ; and to convince him gradually that adequate understanding of Nature is to be won only by approaching the goal by several roads.

For these reasons the unitary approach to science is maintained throughout the first three Parts ; but as foreshadowed in Part III

the application of scientific methods. If a teacher tries to tackle more than these two subjects in the time at his disposal he will be reduced to substitute demonstration for individual work, he will not succeed in giving his pupils a mastery of the important principles, and his work will lack all disciplinary value. The science he teaches will thus not only be learned at second hand but will be necessarily of a cigarette-card kind—a loosely knit collection of snippets. Furthermore, he will tend to concentrate on factual knowledge, and will succeed neither in educating nor in pleasing clever boys but only in occupying dullards.

Refutation of the Objections

To refute these arguments fully would necessitate writing two treatises : one on scientific method, to show that they rest on false philosophical presuppositions ; the other on the theory and practice of science teaching, to show that they derive support from unsound assumptions regarding the efficacy of present practices. It must suffice to say here that I reject these arguments completely and to try

this approach is departed from in Part IV. By casting this part in Sections corresponding roughly to the principal branches of science this relationship is made clear to those whose formal study of science will terminate with the School Certificate and also provides a smooth transition for the few who will pass on to more specialised training.

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to indicate the kind of way in which their falsity could be exposed.

To begin with, it must be admitted that the predominantly literary bias of our system, together with the Platonic background of most of our educational theory, make it exceedingly difficult to plan curricula rationally. An allowance of only a fifth or a sixth of the total time available in school to work in science is ridiculously meagre and quite inadequate. It forces us immediately to face the unsavoury task of balancing the relative value of different topics. Some urge that all the material should be chosen from a single subject. To make discussion profitable these people should take a syllabus like that recently published by the Science Masters' Association¹ and indicate clearly which parts they are inclined to leave out in order to substitute the material they would include. And they should be prepared to compare the interest and value, to ordinary men and women, of the topics substituted for each other.

¹ 'The Teaching of General Science' Interim Report, 1936, Final Report, 1938 (John Murray).

That the compromise achieved, say in that syllabus, is not unpleasing to enlightened specialists is well shown by the opinions expressed by a well-known specialist teacher of Physics, Dr. A. W. Barton.¹ 'This attempt to strike a new balance between technique and information and to select the subject matter so as to give the boy both some conception of the part the physicist plays in life and of the eternal search for truth is being realized to some extent by the introduction of general science.' And, again, speaking of the S.M.A. Report: 'This scheme of work represents the best attempt which has so far been made to provide a course of physics suitable for the future physicist.'²

Indeed, would any candid and unprejudiced person suggest that a knowledge of Avogadro's hypothesis is more generally important than an understanding of the rational foundation underlying hygienic advice? Or that a power of doing calculations on lens combinations is more to be desired than an elementary knowledge of the laws of heredity?

Principles and Methods

As regards the question of 'principles', everybody agrees that the material ought not to be left unco-ordinated, but must be gathered into systems. But principles are not perfectly vacuous—they derive their importance from that of the material they rationalize. And to ordinary people a principle which unifies common experience, or explains socially important inventions is more valuable than a principle which derives its importance (like Avogadro's hypothesis) chiefly from the place it occupies in a hierarchy of logical concepts. In other words, to ordinary people, the unification of experience on the practical plane of day-to-day life is more important than the subtler but more obscure coherence of a theoretical system.

This kind of unification on the practical plane can be secured by a method of approach like, say, the 'Unit Plan', so fashionable in the

U.S.A. Here the children approach important problems such as 'How does our community obtain a supply of pure water?' and learn only those general principles which are relevant to the solution of that problem. And whatever they learn in connection with that problem, whether it be biological, chemical or physical material, is unified by the contribution it makes to the satisfaction of the communal need.

In any case, here again the question of relative value arises. If one has time to teach only ten (or any small number) scientific ideas, is it not easier to select really important ones if they are chosen from the whole range of science than if they are selected from only one sub-subject?

Practical Work

The issue of individual practical work raises an important point. It is certain that in general science courses there will be less time available for experiments done by the pupils themselves. Yet no one doubts that in every worth-while science course a good deal of individual work must be done. Manipulation of materials and apparatus develops familiarity and confidence in handling them, and it helps to develop a feeling for the stuff. In addition, scientific work which does not involve doing things is not worthy of the name. Nevertheless, much time is wasted in the ordinary courses by making pupils repeat *ad nauseam* repetitive exercises which develop only a technique of no value to anyone—not even to the future specialist. Think, for instance, of the enormous waste of time involved in teaching the use of the chemical balance, or of the unnecessary hours spent in carrying out endless determinations of specific heat, focal lengths, coefficients of expansion, etc. Is it really contended that all this is necessary or valuable? Or that anyone learns anything at all from it? Or that school-children could not be better employed? Could we not save much time and money by eliminating from our courses work which we know to be useless? And by demonstrating, when to do so gives a more rapid and effective means of attaining our aims? And by throwing out the exercises in manipulation (with pins and burettes) which are retained only because the apparatus is available and

¹ In an article on 'The Teaching of Physics in Schools' in the Physical Society's *Reports on Progress in Physics*, Vol. V (The University Press, Cambridge, 1939). The whole article is in line with what I have said, and Dr. Barton is very sympathetically inclined towards general science.

² I take it Dr. Barton here means a course in physics which is part of a general science course.

can be cheaply duplicated? In other words, by ceasing to make individual work a fetish, and no longer attributing to it a value as an end in itself.

It must also be admitted that it is not possible to do much quantitative work in general science courses. This is probably an argument in favour of general science rather than against it, for it is certain that this aspect of practical work has been grossly overdone.¹ However, critics urge that the basis of science is quantitative, and that pupils will never understand this point unless they are allowed to do a great many quantitative experiments. There is no doubt that many who urge this argument are unduly influenced in their views by the fact that quantitative experiments provide a cheap and easy way of keeping large classes quiet and busy for lengthy periods, and that the work done can be easily marked by busy teachers. To all this the answer is easy and obvious. It is true that quantitative work and measurement play an essential part in many sciences, though not in all (*e.g.* geology, morphology). But there are many other equally important aspects of science which have been cheerfully sacrificed to the quantitative craze. And no convincing answer has yet been given to the questions, 'How *much* quantitative work must pupils do before they realize its importance in scientific research? Are the methods used the best that could be used to exhibit this importance? Do we succeed in doing what we set out to do? Do we teach our pupils what kinds of questions can be tackled quantitatively and which cannot?'

In fact, of course, every general science course so far proposed includes quantitative work. And it has still to be shown that those who have taken such courses realize less well than other pupils the importance and relevance of the quantitative approach.

Is General Science a Soft Option?

Two other arguments are often advanced by specialist teachers. I have left them to the end, because they are of no real importance

and can almost be ignored in a serious discussion. The first of these objections is that general science courses are a 'soft option' and do not make sufficient call on the intelligence and energy of clever pupils. But it should be clear that this is purely a matter that concerns the teacher, and that it is not dependent on the material he uses. Educative value does not reside in the stuff, but in the way it is tackled.² A good teacher will teach in such a way as to stretch the powers of his pupils and to induce them to active and co-operative effort.

Connected with this point is another, that of 'thoroughness'. It has been said that the attempt to cover a wide field makes it impossible to teach anything 'thoroughly'. To advance this argument is to evince symptoms of linguistic confusion. Obviously it is just as easy to teach thoroughly from a wide field as from a narrow one—it is a matter of treatment. Consider a boy who knows how to use a couple of lenses to make a telescope, but cannot carry out calculations on the focal length of lenses. Compare him with a boy who can do both. Certainly the second boy knows *more* about lenses than the first, but in what way does he know it more thoroughly? In what way is the mathematical physicist's knowledge of radio more thorough than that of the radio engineer who mends his set? This knowledge is certainly different, but is *thoroughness* here involved at all? Surely 'depth' and 'thoroughness' are not synonymous terms.

The Universities and the Teachers

In this article, I am afraid that nothing has been said about what are perhaps the most valid of all objections to the *teaching* of general science: the supply of teachers and the problem of examinations. It is unfortunately true that an adequate supply of properly-trained teachers is not available and that, in consequence, people are being called upon to teach subjects (like Biology) of which they know very little. And one cannot teach well unless one feels enthusiasm and passion for one's subject. Indeed it may be better for specialists to teach their speciality rather than to attempt a general science course—I would not wish

¹ Largely under the influence of mistaken views on transfer of training. ('Training in accuracy', etc.) Dr. Barton's article, mentioned earlier, is very interesting and informative on this point.

² Mnemonic slogan: 'Tis not the stuff, 'tis the style that educates'.

anyone to learn about science from a man who does not love it and who is therefore unable to awaken love in others.

Yet this is not a relevant point. The universities are curiously slow in their response to social demands. They show pitiful timidity and reluctance in modifying their courses to changed conditions. In particular, they do little to give future teachers of science the broad basis of scientific culture which they need. Nevertheless, the universities should be mending their ways rather than infecting the schools. There is no reason to hold up educational advance because those who should be leaders refuse to budge. In any case this problem is rapidly being solved. Many practising teachers, with long experience behind them, are now freely sacrificing their leisure time in order to equip themselves to teach general science.

As for examinations, they will, of course, have to be reformed, for those in current use are attuned to the needs and ideals of a type of science teaching now obsolete. Nothing illustrates better the defects of the examiners and of the instruments they employ than the

complaints they give rise to and the percentage of credit marks in general science awarded.¹

The spirit which animates the supporters of general science is very similar to that which fired the enthusiasm of the pioneers of the scientific movement in the 'Century of Genius'. They are labouring 'to enlarge the knowledge of nature, from being confined to the custody of a few, or from servitude to private interests—to render it an instrument, whereby mankind may obtain a dominion over things.'² Given time, it may be that they will succeed in introducing into our educational system through the teaching of science a more healthy and enlightened outlook, and that they will succeed in combining the spirit of the old humanists with the more Utilitarian outlook of the man of science. Such a basis of scientific humanism would serve well as a foundation on which to build a culture and a society more closely attuned to the needs of an age the material structure and framework of which are scientific and technical.

¹ Here again, see Dr. Barton's article for confirmation of this by a specialist.

² Thomas Sprat : *The History of the Royal Society*, 1667.

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General Science : A Chemistry Master's Criticism

G. Fowles, M.Sc., A.I.C.

Latymer Upper School,
Hammersmith

PROBABLY no one knows more than Mr. Lauwerys does about the incidence of general science and, from a theoretical aspect, about the pros and cons of its worth as an educational discipline. He wrote the much discussed preamble to the 1936 report of the S.M.A. on this subject and almost single-handed answered the criticisms of the report which appeared in the press. We have abundant evidence of his work for general science, his dialectical skill and his ability to load his arguments with the psychology of the school he favours.

Although I agree with much that Mr. Lauwerys has written, I cannot but regret that, in commenting on science teaching as at present practised, he should darken counsel with his inexperience and his inaccuracies. If his gibes and glancing remarks on modern teaching are true, many things that should have stirred them have passed over science teachers' heads, leaving them unmoved: for example, the prolonged and penetrating, if at times truculent, criticism of Professor H. E. Armstrong, the more sweetly reasonable persuasion of Professor Smithells, the efforts of Alexander Smith to improve the teaching of chemistry, the 1919 report, *Natural Science in Education*, the help of that splendid quarterly, *The School Science Review*, and the many conferences of science masters. Assuredly Mr. Lauwerys's ideas of the state of chemistry teaching seem to be thirty to fifty years behind the times.

Admittedly, his innuendoes, meaningless to me, against Avogadro's hypothesis do nothing to advance the teaching of science; nor do his assumptions that chemistry masters choose all the museum stuff for study, and that they fail to explore the interface of science and life. To deal with all the trivial and unfounded criticism would unduly fill my space. Accordingly I shall single out for treatment one of his

inaccurate remarks on quantitative work and then proceed forthwith to consider the fundamental issues.

The modern school balance, designed by G. M. Grace, has no weight smaller than 1 gm. By means of a rider it weighs accurately to 0.01 gm. All instrument makers who deal in school apparatus now supply this type of balance. The time taken to show the technique of weighing is less than ten minutes, and for a boy of eleven or twelve to get used to the balance perhaps another ten minutes. Hereafter any single weighing occupies at the most three minutes. In an investigation carried out some years ago by my colleague, E. D. Goddard, at the wish of the Board of Education with a class of boys aged eleven to twelve, it was found that on the average each single weighing occupied less than two minutes. Is any comment needed on Mr. Lauwerys's misleading and intemperate criticism? 'Think of the enormous waste of time involved in teaching the use of the chemical balance'.

Few would do otherwise than agree that geology, biology, and for a sea-girt country that young but growing science, oceanography, are suitable subjects for school study. So likewise among the languages are Russian and Spanish. That these subjects are infrequently taught at school is largely due to the time factor. The average school week is thirty hours. Any 'broadening of the basis of education'—one of the hypnotic phrases the unthinking use too frequently—must take place within those thirty hours.

How best to choose the subjects of instruction, and what time to allot to each, depends on the aims of education and how opinion thinks these aims are best fulfilled. Therefore no present-day discussion of science teaching can very well ignore the latest body of considered opinion—the Spens Report.

Hitherto classics and literary subjects have predominated in education. All countries have brought up their ruling classes in this tradition and sadly we look out on the world of their making. I regret, a regret I believe shared by many, that the Spens Report did not boldly attempt a revolution in education and a rebuilding on a foundation of science. For our present civilization depends on science as does our hope for the future. To science we look, as Soddy long ago said, to relieve the poor of drudgery, to reduce occupational perils, and to develop the energy and the materials of the world for the benefit of mankind.

Science should, therefore, have a place in education commensurate with its importance, and twelve to fifteen hours of the secondary school week should be devoted to it. Moreover, I am prepared to show how this could be done.

Let us consider history, a subject taught in all schools. By the time a bright boy is twelve or an average boy thirteen, an able history master has aroused that boy's interest, stirred his imagination, and inculcated something of an historic sense. Thereafter the boy can delve for himself, as do many adults whose days of formal instruction are long past. In short, teach a boy to read and history, geography, and literary subjects can be left to take care of themselves. The time thus saved could be spent in working at science, and every bit of it would be needed if the boy is to get a grip of what science really is, and to sense its stupendous importance in the world of to-day.

Instead, what has the Spens Report done? It has given to science a meagre period—three to four hours per week. It has disparaged the teaching of chemistry and advocated the adoption of general science.

Yet for years, teachers of chemistry, by sustained efforts, by trying out suggested ideas and passing on the accumulating experience have steadily improved the teaching of their subject. To this extent: chemistry now worthily takes its place as the finest educational discipline in the school curriculum. The real reason for the suggested change is therefore not apparent. Articles and letters in the press have variously suggested motives of finance, of economy, and of fear. Some classical headmasters, to whom science is still a necessary

evil, and some backward educational authorities with an eye more on finance than on the welfare of the future generation, look forward jubilantly to the 'new' science with its one laboratory and one science master. Whatever the motive, the very constitution of the Spens Committee, likewise of the Panel of 1931, and their partisan procedure made a decision in favour of general science inevitable. For the Spens Committee co-opted a strong advocate of general science, but took the precaution of not co-opting a chemist. It did not call any official representative of the Science Masters' Association, or of any of the chemical societies, such as the Institute of Chemistry—a fellowship of technical and consulting chemists which has always taken a keen interest in science education. Again, among the twenty individual witnesses listed on page 391 of the report are five head- or ex-headmasters of Eton, Harrow, and Winchester, and a professor of anatomy. The Committee did not call in any chemist interested in school education such as Professor G. M. Bennett or Professor G. R. Clemon; nor a university lecturer such as D. L. Hammick, of Oxford, or Dr. R. B. Strathdee, of Aberdeen; no industrial chemist like Sir Harold Hartley or Dr. G. Hollings; not even an outstanding chemistry master such as Dr. E. J. Holmyard or C. Pask Matthews. Anyone of these would have pointed out the fundamental position of chemistry among the sciences and the singular contribution its study gives to education.

The Panel of 1931, the Spens and the S.M.A. Committees make much ado about the five per cent. of pupils who proceed to a university and the ninety-five who do not. What is this 'new' science which these committees deem so essential for the education of the ninety-five? It consists chiefly of the beginnings of biology and physics together with a little chemistry. According to the S.M.A. report this medley is 'harmoniously integrated' and suitable for study by the scientific method of investigation. Examination of the detailed syllabus discloses a mass of the minutiae of biology.

This is where the limited vision of the advocate of general science leads him astray. Had the Panel, the Spens, or the S.M.A. Committee one member with a deep knowledge

of one science he would have given them the warning : keep off the minutiae of my subject. For in the gross the world is full of those great regularities we call the natural laws ; surely these are the right study for the ninety-five ? The hands of men are all alike, so are the grains of a bag of rice, the salinity of the open ocean is constant, the earth's orbit is an ellipse and gases combine in simple proportions by volume. Examine any one of these great regularities and small discrepancies appear, the despair of the specialist.

In 1937 I criticized the S.M.A. syllabus and pointed out that although it might be entertaining it required no intellectual effort, and that it was full of items, such as the chemical elements in protoplasm, which could not be taught in school by the scientific method of investigation, but only by telling, telling, telling. Professor H. V. A. Briscoe and others endorsed this indictment and its challenge has never been met by Mr. Lauwerys or any other advocate of general science. The Spens Report tries adroitly to turn the edge of this criticism by outlining and discussing the aims of science teaching and putting the aim of inculcating the scientific method *last* in order of importance. This manœuvre, this example of truth by proclamation, should deceive no one. Philosophers of world-wide renown such as Bertrand Russell and Nicholas Murray Butler place the scientific method first in importance.

The advocates of general science justify their imparting of an array of facts by asserting that there is a body of scientific knowledge, the possession of which would be beneficial to mankind. Few would disagree with this, or with my contention that that body of knowledge can be obtained by reading or by listening to the wireless. Assuredly there are other bodies of knowledge which he who has been trained to gather, but not to weigh, facts will willingly and uncritically imbibe. The Titus Oates of our day, the purveyors of patent medicines, the sectarian press, the novel with a purpose, all offer us bodies of knowledge cunningly and attractively arrayed.

We, for I believe I voice the views of many, do not call this uncritical pumping in of facts, science teaching. We hold that the facts can be looked up in the dictionary and in the reference

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book, but that to look them up with profit and with understanding it is necessary to know something of the underlying principles and concepts. Although facts can be easily learned or looked up, the mastery of a principle needs repeated exposition. We, therefore, believe in expounding principles and concepts, supporting each point by illustrative experiments, and in teaching the method of science by actually carrying out scientific investigations. We endeavour to show how principles are and have been discovered and generalisations made, and how theories and conceptions have reached their present form. On the way we point out how preconceived ideas, stubbornly held, have led men astray, and how step by step—each supported by illustrative experiments—the truth has finally emerged. From the vast field of chemistry this illustrative material may be so selected that it contains the appeal of fascination, satisfies the claims of utility, and is part of life itself. From the wealth of such investigations available, the poverty of space allows me to instance but one, that of combustion and explosion. The simpler factors concerned with explosions, such as ignition temperatures and the limits of inflammability, are fitting for a school investigation. Experience has informed me that the significant results go right home to the minds of the pupils and become an abiding possession. And I strongly hold the belief that were such instruction made more general the terrible coal-mine disasters which have in the last few years disgraced and saddened our generation would be far less frequent. For precautions would then be cheerfully and habitually undertaken, because their import was known

and not considered as irksome rules unnecessarily imposed.

As pupils grow older we expound as well as use the technique of the scientific method, thus hoping to make our pupils conscious of this use so that they may form habits of critical and logical thought. It is this conscious attitude of mind which is capable of, and of value in transfer. (Incidentally it is significant that Mr. Lauwerys omits all reference to the Spens Report. Can it be because both the psychologists who have made special contributions to that report express a cautious belief in transfer of training?)

Thus we hope that our pupils will become men and women capable of assessing any body of knowledge and of arriving at just and proper judgments. In short, we endeavour to teach not a mass of facts, but a way of learning. Finally, we maintain that this training is valuable for the five but vital for the ninety-five. Unfortunately the acquired ability does not lend itself to mass examination and the shadow of the examination too often darkens the path of the teaching.

This type of training is inapplicable to the 'topic' or 'problem' method of general science. Consider Mr. Lauwerys's illustration of a town's pure water supply. This study involves analysis, bacteriology, adsorption, and the application of the chemistry of lime, bleaching powder, and ozone. This bewildering assembly of facts is neither related to previous knowledge, nor to the next 'topic', say, the town's gas supply. The topics may be interesting, but their study calls for no effort: everything must be told. The pupils are dealing with the application of knowledge before they have

acquired the knowledge itself. Thus the distinctive educational value of science study is entirely lost.

Now the rare philosopher who has mastered more than one field of science—and none other is in a position to judge—assures us that the study of no subject other than chemistry is more fitted to inculcate the scientific method. Furthermore, it is rare to find a pupil who does not respond to chemistry fittingly presented to him. Yet many a boy is repelled by the study of the insides of worms and rabbits. For another boy a detailed knowledge of his bodily functions leads to unhealthy introspections. As Soddy has somewhere said, the proper study of mankind is not man but the right use of such natural sources of energy as the falls of Niagara. The modern boy is more interested in the cutting of an iron girder by means of acetylene, in the working of the wireless, and of the motor car than he is in counting the parts of a flower for its classification, or in impatiently assembling the boiled skeleton of a frog.

Finally, chemistry, fundamental and comprehensive, is an essential part of all the material sciences. In the course of our investigations this truth is constantly thrust upon us. I have rarely given a lesson requiring for illustration such substances as heavy spar or of pyrites without a pupil or so shyly bringing along his own collection of stones. To share his interest, to introduce him to a few helpful books such as Rutley's *Mineralogy*, or F. J. North's *Limestones*, and at odd times to help him identify his specimens, is perhaps all that a busy teacher can do. Yet it gives the boy a start for life. After all, school is but the beginning of education.

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General Science : A Non-Scientist Sums Up

F. A. Cavenagh

MAY I begin with a personal statement? I am writing these comments by invitation, and without any particular impulse to do so. And I was chosen for the task deliberately as not being a scientist: it was perhaps hoped that ignorance might produce impartiality. My remarks, therefore, will carry no more weight than they deserve: they are about on the level of those of a benevolent chairman who professes some interest in the general principles of education.

To deal, then, first with the two articles. Both are enthusiastic and persuasive; but, to the uninformed outsider, Mr. Lauwerys appears to win as a debater. Mr. Fowles has the disadvantage of being the opposer; hence he is too much concerned with picking on particular points made by Mr. Lauwerys. He is less interested in discussing General Science than in boosting his own subject, Chemistry—which, by a magnificent example of question-begging, he claims as ‘the finest educational discipline in the school curriculum’. (One might set this statement in a Diploma paper, asking candidates to discuss the meaning of (a) finest, (b) educational, (c) discipline.) Even more magnificent is the remark (which I will not spoil by any comment): ‘teach a boy to read, and history, geography and literary subjects can be left to take care of themselves’. Moreover, Mr. Fowles shares with the specialist teachers of (it would seem) all other subjects annoyance with the Consultative Committee because they have taken a balanced view of the curriculum.

What then should the curriculum include? To this perennial question there is an answer that remains true, though it needs re-interpreting, for every generation. Matthew Arnold’s formulation of it will serve as well as any: the ‘prime direct aim of instruction,’ he says, ‘is to enable a man to know himself and the world.’ ‘Every man is born,’ he

**Professor of Education in the
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continues, ‘with aptitudes which give him access to vital and formative knowledge by one of these roads; either by the road of studying man and his works, or by the road of studying nature and her works.’ That was written in 1868, when Science was engaged in ousting the Humanities (at that time a monopoly of Classics) from their bad eminence; that struggle, fortunately, no longer concerns us. The modern curriculum is designed to teach both kinds of knowledge; but the question now at issue lies in the manner of knowing ‘the world’. Is ‘nature and her works’ better studied by attention to several aspects or by closer attention to one? Or, more specifically, is a comprehensive knowledge of nature to be gained by a study that omits the science of life?

What we have to consider is the needs of the ordinary man or woman—so far as we can gauge them—in ten or twenty years’ time. They are growing up now in a world dominated by science; they may then be living (‘or partly living’) in a world destroyed by science. It is conceivable that by that time there may be such revulsion from the works of chemists and physicists that people, like the Erewhonians, will forbid them to continue. That, possibly, is a fantastic view; but it certainly seems to the non-scientist that the side of nature that comes closest to us all is the biological. The purpose of all knowledge—except for the few researchers who regard knowledge as an end in itself—is to render life more supportable, to increase human comfort. In these days of crisis it is difficult to feel that chemistry, physics, and engineering have not, on balance, done more harm than good to man’s estate; whereas the uses of biology—unless the diabolism of bacterial warfare is introduced—have been solely beneficial. This may be regarded as irrelevant and even fallacious reasoning; but the fact remains that these

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sciences cannot sterilise themselves, unaided, against the various germs that they contain. The consequent argument is not so much in favour of General Science as of some training in the social uses of science. Again to quote Matthew Arnold : 'To have the power of using, which is the thing wished, the data of natural science, a man must, in general, have first been in some measure *moralised* ; and for moralising him it will be found not easy, I think, to dispense with those old agents, letters, poetry, religion'.

All this is, no doubt, very antiquated. But wisdom did not begin in our day : indeed, it is more likely to end. So it is, I think, worth recalling the views of a pioneer in the teaching of science in English schools. The Rev. J. M. Wilson taught science at Rugby from 1859 to 1879, and promoted science thereafter as headmaster of Clifton. Writing in that epoch-making book, *Essays on a Liberal Education* (1867), he lays down two principles which remain true, however much the position of science and the facilities for teaching it may have changed. They are : (1) 'knowledge must precede science', and (2) 'this knowledge must be homogeneous with pre-existing knowledge'. Hence he argues that 'on these grounds, in addition to other obvious ones, Botany and Experimental Physics claim to be the standard subjects for the scientific teaching at schools. In both these pre-exists some solid and familiar knowledge. Both can so be taught as to make the learner advance from the known to the unknown—from his observations and experiments to his generalizations and laws, and ascend by continuous steps from induction to induction, and never once feel that he is carried away by a stream of words,

and is reasoning about words rather than things. The logical processes they involve are admirable and complete illustrations of universal logic, and yet are not too difficult. These considerations mark the inferiority, in this respect, of Geology and Physiology, in which the doctrines must far outrun the facts at a boy's command, and which require so much knowledge before the doctrines can be seen to be well founded. And these considerations exclude Chemistry, as an elementary subject at least, since there is so little pre-existing knowledge in the learner's mind on which the foundation can be laid. On all grounds the teaching of Chemistry should follow that of Experimental Physics.'

Were Canon Wilson writing to-day (he died in 1931 at the age of 95), he would certainly modify some of his views. The provision of laboratories has removed most of his objections to the elementary teaching of both Physiology and Chemistry, whilst the science-laden atmosphere in which a boy nowadays grows up provides him with that 'pre-existing knowledge' that was lacking 80 years ago. But there is no reason to suppose that he would change his views as to the need for teaching more than one branch of science. Such variety he would hold to be necessary not only for the knowledge but also for the training involved. It will be noticed, incidentally, that Canon Wilson is singularly free from the formal training fallacies prevalent in his day. When he speaks of 'logical processes' he claims no more than that they are *illustrations* of universal logic : he does not make the false claim that scientific reasoning will ensure logical reasoning in other spheres of life. Such transfer, as is now generally agreed, may be expected to occur when the processes and methods of thought are looked at more or less objectively, when a boy, for example, forms a habit of saying to himself, 'I must be sure of my data, I must have all my figures correct, I must test my hypothesis before accepting it—in problems of life as I have done in my science work.' That is an admirable habit to form, provided that the conditions of the boy's work in science are appropriate or relevant to the non-scientific problems that arise.

And here I suggest that there is a strong

argument for a variety of scientific study. The exact sciences are largely quantitative : they deal with factors that can be certainly and accurately measured ; they can eliminate factors that are not wanted, and they can, under laboratory conditions, conduct and control experiments. In other words, they are concerned with a world in which you can lay hold of what you want and keep it still while you measure it. A mind accustomed to such accuracy, and trained to apply such accurate methods, will be sadly at a loss in the everyday world. The decisions of a cabinet, as Sir Austen Chamberlain once remarked, are frequently compromises based on a balance of data, the full truth about which may not become known for months. The training of the Platonic Guardians in mathematics and dialectics would be the worst possible preparation for dealing with Hitler. And the same applies at more ordinary levels of citizenship. There we are concerned far more with accuracy in the use of words than with measurements, and such verbal accuracy must be acquired by direct training. But even in matters more akin to science these cold-blooded quantitative methods are dangerous. To quote Aristotle's famous dictum, 'it is the mark of an educated man to require, in each kind of inquiry, just so much exactness as the subject admits of.' The trouble is that when transfer does occur from the training of the quantitative scientist it demands greater exactness than, in particular, human nature admits of. Economics, sociology, psychology can never be exact sciences ; their data are too intangible, nor can their factors be genuinely isolated for inspection. But the quantity surveyor (if I may misuse the name of a useful member of society) in the pride of his heart thinks that, when he has worked out an I.Q. or a statistical curve for an examination, he has established a certain fact. Whereas, if his transfer had arisen from the less exact biological sciences he might be less cocksure.

As an example of such pernicious rubbish, take the following, from a reputable book recently published in England.¹ 'An ex-

periment was recently carried out in America to discover the relative extent of moral influences on children. Somewhat startling results were obtained. The moral influence of the Sunday school teacher was found to be zero ; that of the day school teacher, 8 ; of the cub- and scoutmaster, 20 ; of the father, 40 ; of the mother, 60 ; and of the child's friend, 78'.

In other words, the true scientific spirit is apt not to be created from one branch of science alone. It must be based both on the exactitude of the mathematical sciences and on the knowledge that living things are mutable and often unpredictable in their behaviour. I am not thinking of the great scientist ; he is forced nowadays to restrict his research to an ever-narrowing field. But the great mass of our boys and girls are not going to be scientists at all. On the other hand, they must have such knowledge as will fit them to live in a world controlled by science. They must know themselves as living organisms, and must understand enough of biological principles for their personal rule of life to be intelligent. And, ideally, they should have such training, scientific as well as humanistic, as will enable them to apply the right kind of reasoning to the problems of everyday life. For the average person, then, I conclude, what is needed is not so much accurate knowledge of any one science as a broad sweep that envisages them all.

One final platitude. The result in this, as in every other aspect of school work, will depend entirely on the skill and enthusiasm of the teacher.

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¹ *Educating for Democracy*, Ed. V. I. Cohen and R. M. W. Travers. The extract occurs in the editorial, which is written by two psychologists—who elsewhere naively complain of opposition to 'scientific' psychology.

Some Unnecessary Difficulties of a Post-School Science Teacher

T. J. Dillon, M.Sc.

King's College of Household
and Social Science

I HAVE been asked as a teacher of physics at a College of Household and Social Science to give my views on the effects that the various types of science teaching appear to have had on the outlook of the students during their first year, when they are taking courses at this college. Of the some two thousand students with whom I have come into contact during the past years, at this college and elsewhere, the majority had just left school and in many cases had only recently passed the necessary qualifying examination.

All were women and those working for the degree took physics, chemistry, and biology as compulsory subjects for their first examination. Mathematics is not one of the subjects. My experience is therefore different from and, in some ways, more general than that of those who are teaching university students, free to choose their first year subjects and presumably prepared by post-matriculation teaching in those subjects. I can also claim that my experience covers a greater percentage than the usually quoted 5 per cent. of girls who go up to universities, because I have dealt in addition with our non-university courses, for which university entrance qualifications are not required.

In the light of what Mr. Lauwerys has written on general science and of the many articles and reports that have appeared on this subject in *The School Science Review* and elsewhere, I am interested to discover what effect the introduction of general science in schools may have on the mentality of the present generation. I want to explain briefly what appears to be lacking in the early education of students and to enumerate a few of the annual difficulties with which they and we have to contend, and of the obstacles met with by the students who presumably should come

up prepared to take a course which includes compulsory scientific subjects.

I shall take a few examples from physics and give the reactions of the student who has done little or no science before. The term 'density' must necessarily be introduced early, and it is surprising what difficulty many of the students have in getting the idea that the measurement of density involves the use of two units. Those who have done no experimental science seem sceptical that, to quote their own words, 'you can divide something by something else which is different'. One appreciates their surprise when realizing that a cubic centimetre or cubic foot conveys very little to them.

Another great difficulty is with 'variation'. Many students seem to have no idea what is meant by the phrases 'directly proportional to' or 'varies directly as' and, if they have a vague recollection of having learnt something about it at school, it is a shock to them to realize that the terms can be applied in any other subject. 'Inverse variation' brings another train of difficulties.

The term 'ratio' is a frequent pitfall; the first time it is introduced there are puzzled looks on the faces of many of the class and, even when the idea of a ratio has been explained and accepted, the use of 'comparative' methods does not come easily to them. When they are asked to compare two quantities either the individual values are given or, if the ratio is worked out, there is a tendency to quote the ratio value as the value of one of the quantities involved. A frequent question is, 'What is a reciprocal?' It takes some time to familiarize many of the students with the idea of reciprocals. One gets used to their surprise that 'one column gets bigger while the other column gets smaller', and, of course, it is almost too much to hope that for reciprocals of numbers

of a higher order than those given in the tables the decimal point will be put in the right place.

It is rare to find anyone who can estimate an approximate result from data without fully working out an expression. So much time is wasted in tedious and unnecessary calculation even, for instance, in specific heat determinations (to quote the example given in Mr. Lauwerys' article), but the time wasted is longer if the unknown 's' has not been correctly and safely isolated on one side of the equation.

In elementary text-books, when reference is made to fractions involving different quantities and statements appear such as, 'hence it follows that if the value of the denominator decreases the value of the fraction increases', the 'hence it follows' implies that the students are awake to simple fundamental mathematical processes, and further that they can play about mentally with the figures. I am sorry for the student who, having worked something out using logarithms, always works it out afterwards 'by arithmetic to see if it is right'!

We have met students taking some of the non-university courses who have never plotted graphs, and who, when graphical methods have been explained from first principles, have expressed the opinion that 'it is a good idea'. This, however, is the exception, similar to the remark that was heard this session at the first class, 'What is this pi they are talking about?' Most students are familiar with the usual school type of a graph, but the idea of using the graphical method for any other purpose, such as for getting information about related quantities, is often quite a novelty.

Examples of the lack of a sense of proportion in dealing with experimental results and measurements are common to humanity in general, but the ideas of relative values, percentage errors, and the significance of 'significant' figures are hard to assimilate when met with for the first time in a college first year course.

These and many other points which cause a serious hold-up in the first term's work have arisen so frequently, especially during the past few years, that I have often turned back to the article on 'Correlation of Mathematics and Science Teaching' published in *The School*

Science Review (October, 1934), in which is given a list of the various branches of 'Mathematics required for different branches of School Certificate Science', and similarly, another list of the 'Graphs used for School Certificate Science'. Apart from a few preliminary lines referring to the mathematics required for chemistry, the whole of the six pages is given up to the various sections of physics. I am very much struck by the completeness of the list and notice that the phrase 'meaning of a ratio' is mentioned nine times and 'variation' nineteen times! I have found that even when students have taken physics as a School Certificate subject, the mathematics which they can offer is rarely up to the working standard implied in the recommended list. Students who come to this college with the knowledge that is suggested, experience little or no difficulty in following any of the courses, and they are spared much unnecessary and confidence-destroying worry.

It would be interesting to investigate how far, if at all, the mathematic courses in schools taking general science are related to the science syllabus. Although, as it reads, the physics part of the syllabus seems to ask for quantitative work, it appears that in most of the arguments put forward in favour of the adoption of general science there is much stress laid on the qualitative rather than the quantitative side of the subject. This tendency is apparent in recent examination papers. If it is true that practically no mathematical work is involved in this course, then a very drastic reduction has been made in what is demanded for a single science subject. It is accepted that the ideas of the science teachers are undergoing revolutionary changes. Is it possible that the students are in some way suffering from the indecision resulting from the period of transition through which the teaching of science in schools is passing?

I must make it quite clear that what I have said does not apply to all the students, because many of those reading for a degree have taken science subjects for Matriculation, or have taken the Higher Certificate, but the recurrence with which these same points have arisen year after year amongst a certain type of student has led me to refer constantly to the record of schools from which they have come and to

find out what subjects they have taken in previous examinations.

It is noticeable, however, that even amongst those who have more than sufficient mathematical equipment there is a lack of the capability of being able to adapt their mathematical knowledge to the demands of the course.

I have only considered a limited aspect of what is lacking, but examples could just as easily be found in any scientific subject where graphical and statistical methods are being so widely made use of. It is a pity that students of this type and age should be spending part of their first year at college in struggling with what should come comparatively easily to them, instead of having that time available to take a new interest in an experimental subject, and to enjoy the adventures of individual laboratory work. As the future teachers of domestic science, institutional administrators, or as social workers in many spheres of life, this year of introduction to applied science is valuable.

This college is one of the institutions where students are being taught to look at science in the light of modern social demands—which is the often-quoted aim of those who advocate the introduction of general science. No one disputes the cultural value of these ideals, but it will be well if the breadth and scope of the course do not detract from the necessary training in scientific method or limit the opportunity for ordered experimental work.

Mr. Lauwerys writes of 'a basis of scientific humanism on which to build a culture', and I am appealing not so much for the 5 per cent. but more generally for those who are taking up the newer careers for women. Although scientific and mathematical qualifications are not insisted on for entry into all these professions, the standard of work is changing rapidly and so much scientific approach is being introduced that anything that can be done for them at school to equip them with good and sound building materials will help them to do, with greater success, what is demanded of them in this scientific age.

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Science in the Senior or Central School¹

Harry T. Punch

**Sec. Science Teachers' Association,
Kent Elementary Schools**

THE fundamental maxim of all true science is measure, weigh, calculate, and the training necessary to master the implied technicalities takes long years for the specialist whose major problems begin only when he leaves the university.

It would be impossible in about two hours a week for the three or four years of senior school life to make a satisfactory course of this academic type. We must rather hope to achieve something of a complete introductory course for the average citizen—something realistic and having a direct bearing on the simple problems and interests of everyday life. We hope to leave in the mind of our pupils an informed respect for the wideness of the subject and for the specialist in each branch. We aim to place a pupil in such a position that he can use reference books and other sources for further facts about topics that interest him. We encourage according to individual capacity an attitude towards all fresh ideas (whether directly scientific or not) which allows him to balance known facts and to develop a reasoned scale of values, coupled with a willingness to revise this scale when indisputable fact shows up its fallacies. We would encourage a suspension of judgment in the face of insufficient fact—a way of living rather than just another school subject of study.

The syllabus at Bexleyheath is designed with these thoughts in mind and with an eye to the fact that the best education for a child's future is a full life at each successive stage of its development. In this age of industry and science, the full life of a child in the teens will include insatiable interest in cars, aeroplanes, and speed, in radio, the film and television, in one or another of a thousand new delights, problems, facilities. Most of

the scientific facts we wish to place before children may as well be derived from this background as from any other, thus getting a realistic bias into school studies.

Bexleyheath Central Boys' School is a non-selective one of nearly 600 boys with an age range of 11 plus to 15 plus. A laboratory capable of practical work for a class of 40 and a demonstration room seating about 100 are available and there is fair storage room. Four handwork benches fitted with wood and metal vices together with a good supply of tools are housed in the laboratory and are in constant use in model making, and in the fixing up of small fittings and gadgets. The teaching-aids include an episcope, a Bolex G3 cine-projector, an optical lantern, and a home-made micro-projector. The demonstration room can readily be darkened and daylight projection is sometimes used in the laboratory. The staff on the science side include two specialist teachers and three others who take a form for, say, a year, a general practice in the school being to allow all teachers of main subjects to ring the changes on other subjects in their scope. This arrangement is particularly useful in bringing strong connections with subjects like gardening and geography, the topics shown in the syllabus being suggestive rather than rigid, much depending on the line of interest shown by different forms and the particular interests and abilities of the teachers as to the method of approach and the details dealt with under the year's main scheme.

The course is built up round a study of the modern home including its inhabitants. It is mainly qualitative in nature, and is concerned with readily obtainable and frequently seen apparatus such as old electric bells, electric irons and kettles, old gramophones, vacuum cleaners, cheap soap, and mouldy cheese. In the first year a general survey of the whole

¹ With particular reference to the Central Boys' School, Bexleyheath.

course is taken, with a view to stimulating the boys' interests in commonplace things, to cultivating a spirit of enquiry, and to finding the temper of the class on which to choose a line of approach for later work. The topics of fire, air, water, and electricity are dealt with particularly, followed by amplification and more detailed study of the scientific principles met with.

The second year finds us in the garden where, perhaps, the relation of indoor plants and flowers to air and water discussed in the first year leads us to a simple study of plant growth, and first year enquiries into hard and soft waters lead to wells, soil structure, mineral sources, and some idea of chemical classification. The importance of heat and its control follows, with some idea of simple machines and their advantages. In the third year a more detailed study is made of the life associated with the house, from the fly and the dog, to man. This includes some indication of the ideas of the struggle for existence and evolution. Then follow investigations into the amplification of man's powers of sight and hearing, including perhaps some simple facts about fixing up electric lamps with transformers, etc., for ray box work, and the wiring and parts of microphone and earphone for sound work. The fourth year embraces a study of the most powerful of man's servants—electricity—the possibilities and dangers of which, having been introduced in the first year, are now shown more fully, being taken perhaps in connection with the lighting and ignition system of a motor bicycle we have acquired, or from a topic based on an electric train run by the meccano club. The cine-projector has been used as the peg to hang the hat on. So has the stage lighting set.

Practical work with a class of 40, and only one teacher to assist its enthusiasts—amongst whose ranks will surely be one who attempts to find the temperature of a bunsen flame by the simple expedient of placing a thermometer bulb therein—is ever difficult. As much time as possible is saved by storing common apparatus, such as bunsens, stands, cells, wire, where a boy can get it as he needs, and it has been found advantageous to have one-way traffic round the room. Experimental work

with the boys is introduced in their first year by whole class methods. Soon this is developed into group methods, each group taking one aspect or development from the topic under study at the time, the experiments having been suggested during demonstrations, obtained from reference books in the laboratory or written out on cards. Groups become smaller towards the top of the school, until often a single boy becomes the working unit, an intelligent one testing a wireless valve whilst his slower classmate arranges a burglar alarm.

As part of the method of approach, not only to the subjects detailed in the scheme, but to a wider experience and interest in other branches of science, crowded out of the actual work of any individual form, subsidiary work is done in keeping a variety of pets such as mice, rabbits, snakes, and aquaria stock, frequent changes being made. Occasional lessons are taken in connection with these and in the use of a comprehensive library which latter is approached both from aspects of reference and of adventure in science. An effort is made to get a real scientific temper in relation to the printed word whether in textbook, reference book, or weekly journal. A question book is available in which children may enter queries which cannot be covered in lesson time—these are dealt with individually or in a later lesson as befitting class and question. A 'show bench' is provided on which objects of interest, sections of mechanisms, and demonstrations are staged for the boys to handle and play with at odd times.

As a point of interest, with three 45-minute periods a week for most forms, we find that approximately a third of the time is spent on demonstration, a third on practical work, and a third on records—mostly in the form of notes or sketches, which, however, are sometimes duplicated and distributed to the class.

Fourth year boys, until September of this year, have been able to leave school at any time, with the result that topics chosen for them have been such that as far as possible they are complete in themselves and are of short duration. A few boys with particular aims in post-school life have been given special timetables which sometimes include science, say, for the entrance examinations to the Services

or to local engineering works. One boy recently read round the subject of farming, particularly pig farming, for a term, and another made poultry his centre of interest, studying the development of the chick, breeding, and the physics of thermostats most intently. Both followed up their interest in their employment.

The school aims at an all-round, general education, with a very high place for courtesy, manliness and self-respect. It would be a confession of failure which I am glad not to make, if any unusual effect was noticed from any particular subject teaching on the choice of jobs by boys when leaving school. This is always conditioned largely by the local industries, large numbers being absorbed here

into engineering works, ammunition factories, instrument making firms. The inevitable errand boy and shop assistant is also found. A fairly large number gravitate to the city and its offices and there is a growing local demand for boys in local government offices, accountant offices, chemists, and opticians shops.

It is pleasing upon visits to the public library to notice how many old boys and even boys still at school worry the science and engineering shelves for lore. It is pleasing to get visits and letters from old boys asking how to make this or that gadget, how to explain this or that phenomena, and even whether their very first second-hand motor cycle really needs a rewind armature for its dynamo, or whether undercutting would do.

General Science : When the School is a Community Centre

G. W. Olive

Headmaster of Dauntsey's School

MOST of the things worth saying about the teaching of General Science are to be found in the Report recently issued by the Science Masters' Association. One consideration, put forward in the course of an interview with a prospective parent, has been omitted. It was being explained that General Science was taught throughout the Lower and Middle School, when suddenly the parent exclaimed : 'I'm afraid you won't find my son very scientific ; he's more intellectual.' What the proper reply to that notable remark is, has yet to be determined.

This Report of the Science Masters' Association mentions the widespread desire to broaden the basis of Science teaching in Secondary Schools. It gives an account of the factors which have operated against the introduction of General Science, and of the objections that can be raised. The Committee responsible for the Report not only compiled a 'minimum' syllabus as a guide for teachers, but it also completed the syllabus by means of a series of 'options' with the intention of affording opportunities for Schools to suit their work to

their special circumstances and environment, and for masters to develop their own interests and those of their boys. Such opportunities make it possible for General Science to assume a wider and deeper significance than that afforded by the mere working out of a minimum syllabus ; the opportunities enable those who are responsible for the school curriculum to plan it more in terms of master-values and principles and less in terms of subject-teaching ; harmony is promoted between the aims that should animate the life of a school and those that lie behind the teaching of General Science. In short, these opportunities cause the work of a school not only to live but to bubble over with life—life of the kind that Tolstoi probably had in mind when he said that 'life is work made by yourself and not by others'. The study of General Science should make boys and girls better fitted to 'weave the strands of knowledge into the web of social progress'. Properly taught General Science will open many doors to the enquiring mind ; for ideas are changing and no longer do we regard the pursuit of the second aorist as the only gateway,

narrow and straight, that leads to intellectual salvation.

There is neither time nor place in schools for a narrow and exclusive conception of the purpose of their existence. Schools must be impelled by the conception of a wide sphere of usefulness and by a sense of their responsibility to all mankind. Every school should be prepared to make its contribution to the common lot, of those educational facilities that it is fortunate enough to possess, and so to open as wide as possible the gateway of opportunity to all members of the community both within its walls and without. Thus can schools put into practice the ideas of service and citizenship. Thus can schools become far more than mere schools; they can become centres where all forms of cultured interest continue to give all men what they need for a full and abundant life, and can contribute to the world a way of life that it has not had before.

If any be tempted to say that the idea is desirable but impracticable, then perhaps one may be allowed to add that the experiment has been tried in part and has been found practicable. No difficulty has been experienced in securing efficiency and smooth working in the school, while at the same time affording to others the opportunities presented by its playing fields, gymnasium, school hall, libraries, laboratories, workshops, garden and farm—with profit not only to those who receive but to those who give.

The conception of a school serving as a community centre cannot be adequately dealt with here, since the purpose of the article is to describe the place occupied by General Science in this conception. We will, therefore, proceed to give some account of the environment of Dauntsey's School and to outline its educational 'media'.

The school lies at the centre of Wiltshire—if any so irregularly-shaped body can be said to possess a centre! It has its home in a fertile agricultural district. The rolling downs of Salisbury Plain reach far away in almost all directions, and near at hand are to be found Stonehenge, Silbury Hill, and Avebury. Gradually more and more land has been acquired by the school; gradually the school

buildings have increased, the farm has grown, the playing fields have broadened out. At a critical stage in its history a kindly benefactor reached out a helping hand. But the will to work towards a definite objective, a will displayed by all members of the school community, has been the great driving force. In the days when the school was very small and very poor, the motto was 'if you can't afford to buy it, make it', and this spirit of 'self-help' continues with full strength. It is the spirit that has caused boys and masters to build, to make or otherwise to bring into being such facilities as the furniture of the school, the wood-workshops, machinery shed and the biological gardens, to run efficiently a farm of 30 to 40 acres, large aquaria both of fresh water and salt water, or in other words, gradually to build up for themselves many of the educational facilities they now enjoy. If everything is provided new (and without effort) the same joy of achievement cannot be felt.

The aims of the school, as of the Science taught, have absorbed some of the infectious ideas caught from Sanderson of Oundle. One of the underlying principles of the syllabus of the General Science is that it must include some measure of work that is worth while, creative in purpose and capable of being carried out only on the large scale and only by the employment of co-operative methods between groups of boys.

It is granted that the provision of a sound foundation of knowledge, insistence on skill and care in the matter of laboratory technique and such like qualities are essential to good teaching; but add to this the participation by boys in large-scale pieces of creative work, and their thoughts and imagination will be carried out from the realm of school right through into their lives. The problems that life presents are usually complex and not capable of simple solution. For a child to grow up with his idea of work limited to that which is conceived and performed on the small scale (thus grows the 'test-tube' mind), or to be timid or inexperienced in experimenting on the bolder and broader basis is an ill preparation for life, no matter in what capacity he be destined to serve his fellow men.

LIFE IN THE NURSERY SCHOOL

By Lillian de Lissa 7/6

This is a book for students and young teachers in Nursery Schools and Classes. It combines a study of the growing child with practical suggestions on the way in which adults can help him in his development.

Though intended primarily for students and teachers, the book should be of interest to mothers and help them to understand some of the problems of the nursery years.

LEARNING AND TEACHING IN THE INFANTS' SCHOOL

By Gertrude Hume, M.A. With Foreword by Prof. Cyril Burt 6/-

The book is an attempt to illustrate the way in which the English Infants' Schools are moving towards the ideal of 'free activity' schools. The keynote of the book is the need for continuity in the education of the young child. It traces the way in which the play impulses of the child in the Nursery Class gradually develop into the more intellectual and social interests of the boy or girl of eight years.

THE TEACHING OF RELIGION

A HANDBOOK OF SUGGESTIONS FOR THE MODERN TEACHER

By E. F. Braley, M.A., LL.D. With Foreword by Sir Frederick Mander 3/6

The aim of the present book is the effort of a practical teacher to link up modern psychological and pedagogical principals to religious instructions in the Primary and Post-Primary schools.

A HISTORY OF THE EDUCATION OF YOUNG CHILDREN

By T. Rayment, M.A. 7/6

Opening with a broad survey of the education of young children in the centuries before schools were provided for them, this book gives an account of the gradual provision of schools in Britain, with some account of parallel movements in other countries, notably America,

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Large-scale 'worth-while' work demands an output of thought and energy, it demands sustained enthusiasm ; it possesses the peculiar merit that unless it be well done, it will fail ; and further, unless it be done in co-operation with others it will not be feasible. In defence of this method of teaching General Science, if defence be necessary, it can be urged that the school has won its full share of examination successes which are supposed to indicate quality of performance. Of course, in our early days there were of failures not a few. However, the same measure of kindness which in the Mohammedan world Allah is supposed to bestow upon the lunatic was extended to us. So we survive, and by hard-bought experience we have gathered some of that 'close to the soil' wisdom which apparently comes to frail humanity in no other way.

The buildings which are concerned with the teaching of Science are two chemical laboratories, two physical laboratories, one science workshop, biological buildings comprising a natural history room, a laboratory, projection room, and aquaria room, and

engineering workshop, art metal workshop, and a wood workshop. Mention may also be made of the farm buildings, which include a feeding room, cow byre, cooling room and dairy, a machinery shed built by the boys, a Danish pig house which will accommodate 100 pigs, 10 large breeding houses for the sows, and sufficient accommodation for 500 head of poultry. A good deal of the housing has been made in the school workshops.

The farm has an acreage of 30 to 40 acres. No attempt is made in this article to describe the experimental work carried out on the farm, since its scope is too large to be contained in any brief description. But full details are available in two brochures which have been published :

- (1) Methods of Teaching Rural Studies
- (2) A Guide to a Few Experiments in Rural Studies

both of which would be gladly sent to interested persons. The experiments described in the Guide represent a few only of the many problems in Rural Studies investigated at the School :

- (1) The Effect of Feeding High, Medium, and Low Protein Rations to Young Chicks
- (2) The Effect of the Addition of Protein to the Ration of Laying Hens
- (3) The amount of food consumed compared with the live weight increase of 10 pigs at different periods from eight weeks old until time for slaughtering—together with the result of fasting, slaughtering and grading.
- (4) An investigation to find the most profitable time to sell Fat Lambs
- (5) The Effect of Grazing with Dairy Cows upon the Botanical Composition of a six-year-old Pasture
- (6) The production of Silage from lawn cuttings
- (7) The Wild Rabbit and its Importance in British Agriculture

The Biological Gardens include, among other things, a unique collection of British plants (made by Mr. E. Marsden-Jones, F.L.S.), which contains approximately 800 species and varieties. Some of the plants are the type specimens described by B. W. Batcher and figured by F. E. Strudwick in 'Further Illustrations of British Plants'. The arrangement follows the 11th Edition of the London Catalogue.

The plants present rare opportunities for study and are not regarded as a mere collection but as a unique plant 'library' where living material can be studied. Inasmuch as it is not desirable to regard the collection as of local interest only, arrangements are made to invite from time to time botanists attached to Universities and Institutions to inspect the plants, and to discuss points of interest with the boys. It is felt that such visits from specialists have a stimulating effect. Visits by local people are always welcomed. Arrangements are also made for parties of children from neighbouring village schools to see the plants, and simple demonstrations are given.

The school acts as a centre from which authentic material for cytological and other research work can be obtained by Institutions and Research Workers. A most careful check is kept on all the plants, especially those that are raised annually from seed, in order to see that they are kept true to name. This is absolutely essential if the scientific value of the collection is to be maintained.

As to syllabuses, no description of these is given herein for various good reasons, the

main being the lack of space, but again it is mentioned, with some diffidence, that if the syllabuses used should be of interest to others, accounts of them are to be found in the Dauntsey's School Annual Report, a copy of which will be sent to any interested persons who would care to have one. One fact of importance must be mentioned in connection with the framing of these syllabuses and that is the proved value in this respect of the collaboration between Dauntsey's School and the local village school.

The School First Year Course in General Science was fashioned out of the experience gathered by the boys of Dauntsey's School during a series of science *conversazioni* given to the children of the other school. The upper standard boys and girls of the Elementary School asked that demonstrations should be prepared on Air, Water, Soil, and Life, which the Dauntsey's boys themselves prepared and demonstrated. But children ask searching questions especially when they ask the questions of other boys not much older than themselves. And so gradually a series of experiments was evolved which seemed to cover all the ground possible, and the experience so gained passed into the form of a first year's syllabus. It is hardly necessary to point out the value in many ways of this intercourse between one set of children and the other, nor to indicate the rich harvest that might be garnered if all schools relatively rich in educational facilities would contemplate their gradual development and use, not only by the actual members of the school but under certain practical conditions by all the inhabitants of the neighbourhood both young and old.

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DUTCH N.E.F. CONFERENCE

The Dutch Section of the N.E.F. held its Annual Conference on April 11th to 13th, the general theme being *The Renewing of Secondary Education*. About 200 people were present, most of them heads and teachers of secondary and grammar schools, and the very successful meetings were given wide publicity in the press. The Conference was opened for the Minister of Education by Inspector Van Andel. In preparing it, the Dutch Section (which now numbers more than 600 members) had the co-operation of the General Secondary Teachers' Union and the Dutch Dalton Society, and committee members of these organisations took the chair at some of the sessions.

At the opening meeting, Kees Boeke, Chairman of the Section, spoke on general N.E.F. principles. The much-honoured ex-Inspector Bolkesyeyn followed on 'Fundamentals of Renewing Secondary Education,' and Inspector Elzinga spoke on the history of secondary education.

Very successful sectional meetings discussed the teaching of classical and modern languages, mathematics, science, geography, history, biology, and art. A particularly hopeful result has been the formation of an Art Group, in which the two organizations of art teachers will co-operate. An exhibition of drawings by children of secondary school age, one of the children's reading books, another of physical instruments, and a lantern lecture on geometry were among the special features of the Conference. At the end of the first evening session a concert was given by the choir of the Children's Workshop Community, Bilthoven, with soloists and orchestra. The programme was much appreciated and the performance of Mozart's Requiem made a deep impression.

Among the lectures was a study of state efforts at renewing secondary education, by Dr. Elisabeth Rotten (Switzerland); a lantern lecture by Dr. Thomas Wright (Scotland), on his former school, which combined elementary and secondary education in one institution; the presentation by Dr. De Groot, Head of the Dalton Secondary School at The Hague, of a revised curriculum, prepared by a group of teachers and published with the help of the local authorities. One session was devoted to a free discussion on The Psychology of the Curriculum. Mr. Daalder, editor of the well-known weekly, *Het Kind* (The Child), gave a beautiful closing address on 'Boys and Girls of Our Time and their Relation to the Teacher.'

CONFERENCE IN BELGIUM

The Belgian *Ligue de l'Enseignement* is celebrating the 75th anniversary of its foundation by holding an International Educational Conference from July 23rd to 30th. The place of meeting is Brussels, except for the final session of the Conference, which

will be held at Liège to enable members to visit the Exposition Internationale de l'Eau. The theme is *L'Eveil et l'Epanouissement de la Personnalité Humaine dans l'Enfant et l'Adolescent*. The programme covers physiological and psychological factors in the development of personality and the rôle of the family, the school, youth organizations, the social environment, the churches, and the army. The President of the Ligue, Monsieur N. Smelten, is an active member of the Belgian Section of the N.E.F., who will be remembered by those who attended our Cheltenham Conference. Further particulars may be obtained from the Secretary, Ligue de l'Enseignement, Boulevard Maurice Lemonnier 110, Brussels.

THE EDUCATIONAL SCENE

Under this title Mr. F. L. Redefers (Executive Secretary of our American Section) writes a pungent article in the May issue of *Progressive Education*. Taking as his starting-point the February number of *The New Era*, on 'Air Raid Precautions for Children,' he asks the question so many of us are asking: Can we do nothing to stop the drift towards war, which is destroying our civilization? From every country we hear that the *people* do not want war. Yet we are living in an atmosphere of war. Our first need is to analyse our everyday behaviour and find out what in it is war-breeding. Then we must seriously face the task of educating for peace. This will involve a thorough cleansing of our current educational practices and curricula. We have to bridge the gap between what we know and what we do. For instance, we talk peace and democracy and human values, but we maintain O.T.C. units which teach bayonet drill. We have to put our words into deeds. We are scared by the threat of war into action to protect children. But in peaceful times what do we do to protect them from insecurity, fear, and starvation? Our problem is to produce appropriate behaviour in terms of what we know, namely, the behaviour which will bring forth—in some form of co-operative commonwealth—the civilization of economic abundance, democratic life, and integrity of expression. The education which will do this will not be merely a matter of knowledge—some of those who talk democracy cannot act it; it will be an education of the emotions. This calls for a comprehensive programme of school, community and nation to build a totally new kind of education. Some of the enemies which stand in our way can be recognised and fought. There is the growth of intolerance towards minority groups, of which anti-semitism is the most conspicuous example. It is an enemy of democracy and within our own sphere of education we must face and rout it. Our education must make us big enough to appreciate and understand different races, cultures, and religions. Then again, there is opposition to having education do anything about present problems—an opposition

which must be seen and fought. We are helping democracy if we help our pupils to become acquainted with the human and material resources of their country that could be used to build a better civilization. Another enemy is the attempt to curtail educational freedom, by the prescription of textbooks or by pressure from authorities and local influences. This is a challenge to our professional organizations. These are some of the visible enemies. There are others more elusive. We shall lose the fight if all we do is to talk and pass resolutions. We must act to hold our ground and to push forward.

REFUGEE CHILDREN AND TEACHERS

Several times lately Headquarters has been asked

Book Reviews

The Human Problem in Schools, by Maria Milner. (Methuen & Co., 8/6.)

To reflect upon this aspect of the human problem as it is presented in this cool and detached account, is, for those who know something of the surface conditions, like being shown the seven-eighths of the proverbial iceberg lying below the waterline; and what lies below is disturbingly greater, of immensely larger significance, than what is seen above.

Mrs. Milner modestly describes her book as an attempt to give a descriptive study of some of the human problems arising in High Schools, and to give some indication of the kind of assistance that the psychologist might offer towards their solution. It is all this and more, for those who know little of psychology, or are inclined to be sceptical about its claims, will discover that the book has a secondary value as an illustration of psychology at work.

The first section states the conditions and scope of the experiment, the next deals with the psychological techniques for observation and measurement that were employed, including various types of tests, interviews with girls, staff, and parents, and investigations into variations in temperament, environment, and vocational choice. In the latter part of the book the author, working upon the evidence she has obtained, puts forward the case for a psychological approach to the ordinary problems of a girls' school, and ends with some 'practical implications', recommendations in all but name. All the data is supported by tables, graphs, and charts admirably adapted to the understanding of the ordinary reader.

It is likely that teachers and heads of schools will agree that most of the problems and difficulties dealt with in the book are common to the education of girls all over the country, such as the exhaustion and nervous strain often felt by both teachers and taught in the effort to achieve an improved academic standard, conflicts of all kinds, and a sense of insecurity set up by the goading that the present system seems to demand, 'difficult' behaviour and struggles with discipline and punishments. What

for hospitality by refugee teachers. If any readers could offer a few weeks hospitality in an emergency we would be glad to hear from them. Also now and again we need families or schools willing to take children.

OBITUARY

We are grieved to announce the death of Dr. Anders Vedel of the Skive Folk High School, Denmark, after a long and painful illness. Many of our members will remember his wise and kindly presence at the Heidelberg and Elsinore conferences and our friends in Australia will remember him as a member of the N.E.F. delegation that visited their country in 1937.

will come as a shock is the realisation, and as far as possible, the proof, that in far too many cases education, as it is now practised, often fails to serve the needs of the individual in any appreciable way. The school career, even the superficially successful one, may fall so far short of its ultimate aim—the integration of personality—that it may in fact actually cause disharmony and failure in the individual to adapt herself to her environment. In the race for the advancement of learning the fate of the 'total personality' is lost sight of. One reason for this, pointed out by Mrs. Milner, is that parents, anxious to equip their children for life as well as possible, exert undue pressure on them to attain scholastic achievement beyond their intellectual abilities. Better knowledge as to the nature of intelligence, she goes on to state, might relieve the situation to some extent. On the other hand there is no doubt that the evidence she offers shows that in the educational world itself too little is understood about the nature of mental and moral growth and too little opportunity is allowed for the development of individual differences. The tithes of mint, anise, and cummin, in consideration of the demands of the school certificate, are put before the weightier matters of the law.

The author, who is mainly concerned with the question of adjustment in social relationships, does not often penetrate into the fastnesses of the classroom, but it is significant that one of her tentative recommendations is the introduction of more dramatic work, and greater opportunities of all kinds for self-expression. The careful study of a set of interviews, using the postcard-sorting method as one of her tests, illustrates lamentable lack of the right kinds of emotional experiences in the school lives of many of these girls, and the resultant poverty of expression and inability to relate personal reactions to situations.

It is to be noted that Mrs. Milner's earlier work in psychological investigation had been done in connection with industrial problems, and that she had approached the work from the point of view of the elimination of waste. Her treatment of the

educational problem suggests that a better knowledge of elementary psychology and a more pregnant application of it on broad lines are the only ways to check the leakage and waste going on in the world of education at present.

M. Brooke Gwynne

School for Barbarians, by Erika Mann.
(Lindsay Drummond, 5/-.)

History is a fickle jade, for, however hard we search her story for guidance in the present to enlighten us as to the future, she is wayward and rarely gives us help. Perhaps the most important task for men of good will in Europe to-day is to discover an answer to the diabolic question posed by Hitler and his crew: How are you going to resist my attack upon your very spiritual integrity? If you cannot do that you will be unable to resist by any more material weapons, however much you appease, however strong your united fronts appear, however much you declaim against my irrationality. Reason is dead. His devilry consists primarily in the insinuous challenge that there is no answer. Adolf, the son of the New God, who is but the old nineteenth-century God, Nationalism, writ large, is telling eighty (or is it ninety, I forget) millions of Germans and all their fearful neighbours that the world is for the virile and the ruthless, that the old civilization cannot survive and that there is no interior reason why it should survive. What is more fearful than the cogent reason of force is the undermining of reason and the destruction of the will to survive. All that the Western world held to be true is denied, and the whole content of a civilization is held to ridicule.

Miss Erika Mann's book is opposite. Herself the daughter of Germany's exile novelist and one who is sensible to the spiritual forces in her own beloved land, Miss Mann has written about the educational policy in action of the new Barbarian Philosophy. The title is a little misleading; Miss Mann does not accuse her people of being barbarians, but she shows in a number of details how exactly the present régime is attempting to make of the civilized Germans the new Barbarian Aryan Nation destined to dominate the world. We are shown the schooling at work, the methods of teaching and, above all, the content of the teaching. We are introduced to the institutions intended to do what cannot be done by the teachers—the youth organizations. We are shown how it is the deliberate intention of the government to undermine all the loyalties of family, of church, of liberal and voluntary association in favour of an unremitting obedience to the new Leviathan, the State.

The matter is attractively presented, the writing is delicate and there is a conscious reserve and a deft choice of exemplar incidents that make the heart weep with her. But Miss Mann does her intention an ill service in begging the real question. What we want to know is whether this policy is going to succeed, that is, whether all the little German boys and girls are becoming barbarians, and

whether all resistance of the parents, the priests, and most important, the teachers in schools and universities, is being completely undermined. The impression left by Miss Mann is that all hope has gone and that men of good will can hope for no help inside Germany. The Epilogue is set in America and the suggestion is that only in such free lands is there to be found Hope. History has never seen such a systematic attempt to create a new national philosophy and can therefore help us little. What we require from men and women as gifted and as well informed as Miss Mann is an investigation into the psychological fate of this mass propaganda. Will it succeed? Reason says NO. Reason, however, plays less part than we would prefer. Are there no forces underneath this outward obsequience that resent and resist silently? Are all the teachers perverted? It cannot be. Germany may be a School for Barbarians but it may well be that this inculcation of 'ideas' is doomed to fail. What does modern educational theory have to say? Hitler may canalise certain instincts but if he is to be victor in the struggle for the soul of the west, he has to prove that all men are instinctively barbarous and that outward conformity is identical with spiritual conviction.

Harry Ross

The Five Sisters : A Study of the Dionne Quintuplets. By Dr. William E. Blatz, Professor of Child Psychology, Toronto University. (J. M. Dent & Sons Ltd., 10/6.)

What does it feel like to be a Quin? This question cannot at present be answered, but it is one that will most frequently be asked of the Dionne sisters when they grow up. One aspect of the situation is interesting. What does it feel like to awake in the morning and find four other counterparts of oneself in four other little beds, or to sit down to meals opposite four images of oneself? For these four children are so much alike that often the nurse does not know which child she is addressing, and only the child herself can supply the answer. When they are all together Yvonne is recognized because she is the largest; and so is Marie, because she is the smallest; both these being only slightly different from the others. As for the scientifically-minded adults who direct the nurture of these children, it must be difficult at times to remember that each is a human being and not a scientific experiment. Are these five sisters *identical* quintuplets? That is to say, did they develop from one single ovum? This is a question of absorbing interest to the biologists. Taking into account the evidence at the children's birth and their chart of similarities, it has been decided that they are *identical*, which makes them almost a unique genetic phenomenon. Therefore, as all have a common heredity and are structurally alike, will the major differences in personality, if any appear, be due to *nurture*?

The development of these prematurely-born quintuplets has been remarkable, thanks to the

wisdom and care of Dr. Dafoe and their other guardians. At the age of three years they had reached the normal in height and weight, except for Marie, who was a little below the average. Their maturation tests gave a range of between 75 and 80 per cent. of the normal. As prematurely-born children of seven months do not approach the average until the fifth or sixth year, this is considered to be a good achievement and there was still plenty of time when these tests were made for the Quins to catch up before they could be termed 'retarded'.

These are modern children and their psychological development, any more than their physiological, has not been left to chance. Dr. Blatz, who believes that 'Play is not an instinct', but that it must be learned and directed, and that 'a happy child is a busy child', has seen to it that the emotional and educational environment of these children is as perfect as their physical environment. The descriptions of the ideal arrangements of the house and playgrounds, the number and personality of their attendants, the provision of every kind of indoor and outdoor play and the type of play materials used, and the hour to hour regime of sleeping, eating, dressing, cleaning, playing, and learning will be of interest to all interested in the subject of child nurture. Music, rhythm, dancing, drawing, painting, and singing are all included in the curriculum. The only punishment is isolation.

Fortunate children! not because they have so much of material advantage that others have not got, but because they are being gently initiated into a way of life that should enable them to become independent, useful, and happy citizens. In a disciplined freedom they are learning to live not only for themselves, but for the community. Without tears, but with lots of fun, all the useful habits our Victorian ancestors extolled are being learned without difficulty.

It will comfort the parents of ordinary little mortals to hear that in spite of their ideal environment the Quins are not without the usual little human wickednesses such as tempers, tricks, and deceptions. Nor have they remained free from that bugbear of less isolated families—the common cold. Three or four times a year the sick room has been in requisition for complaints like sore throats, enlarged glands, diarrhoea, and other childish troubles. And did we not hear a little while ago that all five were to lose their troublesome tonsils? Let us therefore take heart, some of us might have been worse considering our early disadvantages.

What of the future? Is each Miss Dionne to become a real individual, or merely one of the Dionne Quins? Will publicity follow them to the grave? Will an attendance at church become a show? If so, normal development will not be easy to achieve. Already the Quins are not unaware of the invisible presence of the visiting public, and occasionally mild histrionic exhibitions have been noted. It is understood that soon the Quins will be introduced to the King and Queen during the Royal tour of Canada. If unaffected by their adult

mentors, young children usually behave naturally and often quite charmingly in the presence of Royalty. It is to be hoped that the Quins, who by all accounts are to date both charming and very natural little specimens of humanity, will not have suffered too much from the publicity of such an event nor from the insistence of a stilted and artificial kind of behaviour. This book, which is a scientific record of development, will be of great interest to parents as well as to teachers, child psychologists, and medical practitioners. The photographs are charming.

Ethel Dukes

Bomepsychology og Pädagogik. Wilhelm Rasmussen.

Wilhelm Rasmussen, Director of the State Teachers College in Copenhagen, is one of the pioneers of modern child psychology and free education in the Scandinavian countries. The present book contains his five lectures given recently to Norwegian teachers in Oslo.

In the first lecture the author gives an outline of the application of child psychology in education. He is aware that the final aims of education cannot possibly be deduced from psychology; they have their roots in our fundamental ethical convictions. For the author the aim of education is to give the possibility of a fruitful life, fruitful both for the child in question, and for his fellow men; and as we are living in a changing society, a society in need of fundamental changes, the child must be educated not only to fit into changing conditions, but also to co-operate in the initiation or the carrying out of changes for the better. With this well-conceived final task always in mind pedagogics can be built up as an application of child psychology; the first lecture performs this task in a rather cursory manner.

The second lecture is an interesting small contribution to child psychology mainly based on the author's observation of his own children. He shows how early children start to observe themselves and the behaviour of other children as well as of adults and to speculate on the motives of human action and behaviour. These spontaneous activities of the little child as well as many questions put by school children suggest that it would be fruitful to incorporate somewhat more psychological studies into nature study and geography as well as into integrated 'projects'.

The rest of the lectures are more detailed investigations of some important consequences of the programme outlined in the first lecture. The third and fourth lectures are closely connected with each other, and bear the title 'First-hand Investigations in the School' and 'The Educational Value of Doubt'. More than thirty years ago the author started to try out the application of Dewey's ideas to nature study and then asked the children themselves to write freely on their own impressions of the comparative virtues of different ways of study. He also very early—almost simultaneously with and independently of both the late Leonard Nelson and

Laurin Zilliacus—found out the only really fruitful method of class-discussion, in which both the asking and the answering is done mainly by the pupils themselves, the rôle of the teacher being restricted to the organization of the intellectual co-operation amongst the pupils. He shows by inspiring examples how, through such methods, both the imagination and the critical, even the self-critical, powers of the children are developed, how the children rediscover independently—and sometimes even anticipate—important scientific achievements.

The last lecture is a report on a piece of original research of the author's concerning co-education. It is based on the opinion of children themselves, who have been asked by the author to state and to explain their observations concerning the influence of co-education. These manifestations will provide powerful arguments in favour of co-education. Besides they show the child as a psychologist and a thinker, particularly an educational thinker.

Unfortunately in some points this courageous and original book shows inconsistencies. For example, the author writes that in teaching scientific cosmology he never intended to polemicize against the cosmological views expressed in the Bible. We feel bound to ask whether it is compatible with the basic principle of intellectual honesty in education that children should hear two contradictory versions of one and the same problem without this contradiction being thrown open to discussion. Again, the author refers to masturbation as to a 'certain habit injurious to health'; here surely he is accepting implicitly an age-honoured sexuological opinion, which, in the light of modern research, can hardly be maintained without substantial reservations. Of minor importance is a historical misstatement; when speaking of systematic education of the senses he forgets the pioneer work of Rousseau, Séguin, and others, and gives all credit to Dr. Montessori.

As a whole, however, this book is highly instructive as well as stimulating and challenging. As I understand that an English edition is in preparation I should like to suggest that the third and fourth lecture should be expanded with the help of the extremely rich material published in the author's important book, *Nature Study in the School* (translated from the Danish by G. G. Berry, 1929), which is out of print; e.g. the long list of scientific questions put forward by the children should be included in the English edition of the new lectures. *Paul Némenyi*

Parade of Time. E. W. Martin. (Rich & Cowan. 4/-.)

'History', Professor Pollard once remarked, 'can never be true to life without imagination. Facts and figures are dry bones; it requires imagination to clothe them with life and meaning'. One must emphasise, in view of some recent publications, that the best decked body is but a poor affair without the stiffening of those same dry bones. In Mr. Martin's collection we have that blend of fact and imagination which goes to make good Historical Fiction.

FORTHCOMING NUMBERS OF THE 'NEW ERA'

JULY—AUGUST :

What I am Doing

First-hand descriptions of experiments in various fields.

SEPTEMBER—OCTOBER :

Psychology and the School Child

Perhaps the most interesting psychology number we have prepared so far, showing the psychological approach to the development of the inner life, community living and learning powers of the child.

NOVEMBER :

Drama and the School

These fifteen stories, written by such recognized masters as Stevenson, the Lindsays, and Naomi Mitcheson, and ranging from Pagan Rome through Medieval England and France to the early nineteenth century, are no mere costume romances, but honest; and often scholarly, attempts to interpret the living past.

How far it is possible to recapture the spirit of a past age, few will venture to decide; Mrs. Mitcheson does something very like it, and manages to create an absorbingly realistic atmosphere without once intruding her own personality—as if she had shut us into another world, and left us there. For the most part, however, we are content, as in Q's 'Shakespeare's Christmas', to wander with the author in a world which is seen—albeit with conviction—through the eyes of the writer.

Essential truths are grasped not by logic, but by intuition, and one historical story written with real knowledge and insight can do more to produce an understanding of the 'Zeitgeist' than many text books—especially with children. Even with this present volume, I was surprised at the enthusiasm which met some of these mature and subtle stories, from boys of twelve and thirteen. 'Buying a Secretary', 'Sigrid Storrada', 'A Lodging for the Night', and 'L'Aristocrate', were received with breathless delight, and there is a wide field in this direction for Mr. Martin and any writer with a sound historical sense; a volume of such stories prepared for twelve-to fourteen-year-olds would be invaluable.

Meanwhile, here is a volume for their seniors which should be bought and enjoyed.

J. R. H. Yeoman

The Theory and Practice of General Science, by H. S. Shelton. (Thomas Murby. 3/6.)

This little book makes an interesting and provocative contribution to the current controversies on General Science. Science teachers will find much to approve and much to criticise. The author is a

keen advocate of General Science but has many criticisms to make of the Report on 'The Teaching of General Science' recently issued by a Sub-Committee of the Science Masters' Association. In particular he makes out a good case for the 'topic' method of presentation as against the 'subject' method and advocates closer correlation between the individual sciences and with Geography. He devotes a special chapter to the correlation of Science and Mathematics.

Mr. Shelton puts forward an outline syllabus, to cover four years, which comprises two parallel courses in physical science and life science. The former is divided into 18 topics and consists of material from Physics, Chemistry, Astronomy and Geology. 'Life science' is allotted only a quarter of the available time, and logical presentation of this section seems to have been sacrificed to provide suitable correlation with the dominant physical science.

The book contains a brief historical sketch and there are chapters dealing with the preparation of

teachers and with the social aspect of General Science.
C. D. L. Brereton

Mr. Popper's Penguins, by Florence Atwater. (Harrop, 5/-.)

This is a charming story about Mr. Popper, the house painter, whose enthusiasm for things Antarctic caused him to be presented first with one penguin, and later with a mate for it—the pair in their turn presenting him with ten lusty offspring (an unexpected profusion caused by their change of climate and environment).

The whole dozen, after nearly ruining their master with the expenses of live fish, refrigerators, and other aids to penguin comfort, proceed to make his fortune on the music hall stage when they and the whole Popper family go on tour.

The authors, and also the artist, Mr. Robert Dawson, have studied faithfully Dr. Murray Levick's beautiful book, *Antarctic Penguins* (Heinemann, 1914).
J. W.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

THIS issue of *The New Era* gives a fresh and lively picture of the sort of work that is being done in schools all up and down the country. Judged by the unemphatic tone of their writing, the contributors do not seem to feel themselves to be pioneers, trail-blazers, experimenters, or in any way exceptional people. They seem to assume that many teachers in many schools are working on these and similar lines. They write as craftsmen who are not prepared to lay down rules or generalize, but who know what they're about.

Thirty years ago this copy of *The New Era* would have seemed like an account of the State School system of some quite imaginary state. Postmen in the classroom and classes at the railway station, parents in the school and teachers taking home-conditions into account in deciding what form will be most suitable for a given child; children communicating with one another through the school post office; journeys to France in term-time, and eleven-year-old boys writing and rehearsing plays on school premises with no master present. These would have sounded like Bedlam or Utopia, according to the reader's private tastes, not like sober work done with the moral and financial support of the Board of Education.

There is no doubt but what a revolutionary change has come about in our conception of education. With increased awareness of the nature of childhood we have a new outlook upon the duties of the teacher and the function of the school. The new spirit of education has not as yet anything like a complete incarnation. There are still many disgraceful school buildings; the provision of milk and meals is still too grudging; many classrooms

still stick pretty closely to the 3 R's and provide little that is akin to the inner life of the child, or to the busy life of his out-of-school community; in many schools fear remains the whip and competition the spur to good conduct and good work. But these evils are no longer rooted in our educational system. Where they exist they are largely due to the personal failure of members of education authorities or of the teachers themselves. It is true that teachers have still two technical excuses for adhering to a bad technique: the size of classes and competitive examinations. Neither is a fatal impediment to true education, as many contributors show this month. But it cannot be denied that both are a drain upon the physical and nervous resources of the teacher, robbing him of vitality that is needed for his proper work. Has the Board of Education decided to wait for the falling birth rate to remedy the former, and for 'secondary education for all' to take the sting out of the latter? We continue to urge that this is too costly an economy.

HARDLY any of the contributors to this issue are members of the New Education Fellowship. Yet almost everything they say is a direct illustration of some of the Fellowship's most fundamental tenets:

'Education should start from the child as he is. There should be no arbitrary imposition of rigidly prescribed content or method; curricula and procedure should take shape in terms of the nature and experience of the child.'

'Education should at every stage be concerned with the child as a complete human being and not only with particular aspects or faculties.'

'Education should be based on the belief that each child has a natural eagerness to learn and to perfect his innate capacities. One of the essential functions of education is, therefore, to provide an environment in which this eagerness can find full expression.'

'Education should work for the gradual attainment of the inner discipline of freedom in place of the external discipline of compulsion. It should not only be tolerant towards individual differences, but should adapt its methods so as to utilise these differences in the interests both of the individual and the common good.

'All educational institutions should give varied opportunities for experience in communal life so as to provide practical training in citizenship and develop the sense of responsibility of members towards one another and towards the various groups that make up the community.

'The school should not be isolated from the wider world, but should establish contact with all surrounding life.'

Most of the following articles, and perhaps particularly Mr. Hawkey's, might have been written as practical commentaries on this text.

Apparently the founders of the Fellowship both foresaw and promoted a kind of education which the democracies are steadily adopting as their staple practice. It is a kind of education which is suited to a democratic state, and which is quite unsuited to, and is therefore summarily rejected by, any totalitarian government. This rejection is not a supposition, but a matter of fact. Some of the individual schools and certain whole school systems of the pre-Hitler Germany were among the most advanced in the world in their care for the individual, in their new approach to discipline and to creative activity. Yet all their work was swept away, and the products of their work were swept into the new State machine—all without effective protest from the teachers.

Such happenings have filled the minds of members of the Fellowship with new preoccupations. They have witnessed disproofs of their earlier idea that a new generation generously nurtured would create a new world order juster and saner than the old. They feel that teachers, by devoting all their energies to the coming generation, have been in fact escaping their responsibilities to their own. It seems that teachers cannot afford such an escape. Unless they will act as citizens of the larger world, opposing injustice, defending individual liberties, gingering up committees, playing their full share in the running of local government and what share they can in the shaping of national policies, they run the risk that the larger world may change without their connivance and may turn into the sort of place in which their pupils will have to do exactly as they're told, without

any chance of exercising their generously nurtured powers of initiative and judgment.

So the New Education seems to be making new demands upon teachers. (It has always expected a great deal more from them than the older narrower education did.) It has always held that 'education should at every stage be concerned with the child as a complete human being'. It is therefore logical enough in urging that teachers should be 'complete human beings', exercising their civil as well as their tutorial faculties. The danger and folly of teachers abstaining from civic action is obvious. But we must surely be careful that, in urging teachers to take their share in the political life of their day, we do not also betray a certain impatience and lack of faith over their slow and tentative efforts to enable each child to outgrow his own inevitable conflicts in an atmosphere of peace and order.

Some time ago, I was watching the Nursery Class in a very modern school, one which aims definitely at the social education of its pupils. The youngest child in the class was under two, and the eldest under five. They were sitting in a circle on a rug listening to some delightful gramophone records. When one of the children lay down she was gently urged to sit up again, and when another got up and began to dance to the music he was equally lovingly induced to sit down. So the group was persuaded to enjoy a communal activity, which was not one I think, which, at their age they would have chosen.

This procedure struck me at the time as reactionary rather than progressive. One meets constantly with the same kind of thing in accounts of French and Soviet school procedures. It is an attempt to hurry the development of the individual in the supposed interest of the group. I feel quite sure myself that this is a mistaken desire. Unless the individual outgrows his individual conflicts these will crop up again to spoil his individual and communal living later on. A society which has been drilled into goodness is not really stable or creative. And I should like to see the New Education Fellowship renew their patient psychological approach to the child and his needs, while at the same time urging civic action on their teachers.

Ready to Learn to Write

Beatrice M. Culham

Marlborough School,
Isleworth, Middlesex

JOHN and Mary go to the Infants School at five years. They are two children in a class of nearly fifty, and one of their activities during the next three years is writing. After a few weeks in school their parents are asking 'When do the children learn to write their A B C.' From the observation of children learning to write we have come to appreciate that the manipulation of the alphabet is not the earliest and most important stage in the development of writing. In the *Story of the Alphabet* by Edward Clodd we are reminded that by putting together all the letters of the alphabet in every possible way we might think we could produce every sound that has ever been written, but these millions of sounds would not be words 'because they would lack the most important ingredient, that which makes a word to be a word, namely the different ideas by which they were called into life'. It is with ideas that call words into life that we must first be concerned if we are to help the children towards writing as a means of expression.

Children of five years take a delight in 'putting themselves' on to paper or blackboard in pencil, paint, or chalk. At first they set down one symbol after another without any apparent connection, their own explanation of their pictures being a series of single words—house, girl, flower, etc. The significance of such words is personal to each child. John's 'house' stands in some way for part of John's own experience. From studying the free drawings and conversations of many children aged five, I find that most of their 'stories' centre around a little boy or girl or both, a man or woman, or both, and a house. The vocabulary consists chiefly of names and the names are of objects in the children's immediate environment. Placed in order of the frequency of their occurrence after boy, girl, house, come : flower, aeroplane, motor, trolleybus, boat, engine, fire engine, signal, bridge, smoke, ladder, doll, pram, bicycle, ball, kite, flag,

sun, moon, three bears, Mickey Mouse, Jack and Jill, shop, bread, butter, eggs, Punch and Judy, roundabout, swing, horse, rabbit, tortoise, duck, spider, bird, tree.

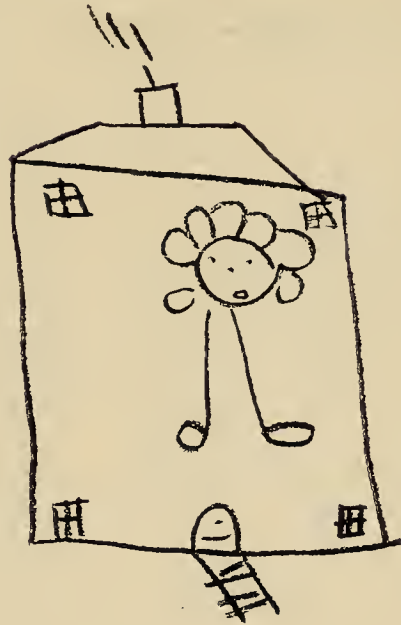
The drawings are varied, ranging from the roughest scribble to the neatest arrangement of straight lines, but all are symbols for the expression of thoughts and we regard them as the 'picture writing' through which we may lead to script writing as a further means of expression. Experience is our first concern. In a friendly environment a 'give and take' prevails among all kinds of play activities, and from five to eight years the children's outlook is ever widening. This widening of experience is brought about through the presence of other children and through the development of various interests which in time come to be called 'centres of interest'. These centres of interest afford opportunity for contact with other folk and the school has among its friends milkman, postman, fireman, greengrocer, railway porter, engineer, commercial traveller, sheep farmer, who have in their turn been into the class rooms and shared vigorous conversation with the children. Not only do people come in to link the school with the world around it ; the children go out. In groups they watch the traffic on the adjoining main road, they visit the toyshop, the post office, the milliner's shop, the railway station, the river, Kew Gardens, and the Zoo. After a time this first-hand experience is supplemented by the 'second-hand' knowledge which children are able to acquire from books when once they have learned to read.

We have not yet answered our question about the A B C. If writing is to have significance for John he must appreciate that thought—'John's house. John inside it'—can be expressed not only through drawing (figure 1), but also through the script.

When he draws and talks we write by the side of his picture while he is yet unable to write for himself. But John is eager to know

how to do his own writing. With a little encouragement he will copy our pattern and in time will write his story without our help. Once he is able to write we find that he tends to use either writing or drawing as his form of expression and then the two skills continue to develop separately. The place of drawing as a step towards writing is extremely interesting. With pencil in hand, Mary at five years says, 'A house with a knocker on it. Daddy, a man, and another man'. Then she says: 'Daddy is raking in the garden, a man is knocking at the door. There is another man inside the house, he is reading the paper and won't open the door'. It seems as though in drawing and naming the objects she has made her thoughts clear to herself and can then proceed with her story. Sometimes the children find such real expression in their drawing that they refer to their pictures as though they were the actual objects. Bob, five years, says: 'This house doesn't want any writing because it's just going to be smashed up'. Rita draws a doll and says: 'This is my dolly. That's her hat. That's her frock. You don't have to write about her boots because they are her old ones'. And Teddy, admiring his own drawing of a house, says to his playmate: 'Isn't it a nice house, Ron? You can live in it. . . . Here's the house and now Ron lives in it'.

Mary at six years draws two humans, one large and one small, the smaller leading. This is her characteristic drawing for several weeks



Johns house.
Johns house.

John inside it.
John inside it.

Fig. 1.

and her interpretation varies from time to time. A similar picture (figure 2) stands for:

1. Mary is going to school.
2. Mary is going to the shop.
3. Mary is going to the seaside.
4. Mary is going to the country.
5. Mary is going to Brentford.

A casual glance at these five stories suggests a 'plateau' in the child's development, but during this time Mary is doing her best to write for herself. With increasing confidence she achieves, 'Mary is going to'—and then looks for help to write the last word. Following this series of five comes a more detailed picture (figure 3) and 'Mary is going to the Zoo with her Mum and her Aunt', and then (figure 4): 'The panda is very nice and the people are looking at him'. The plateau stage is past. Now, at about 6½ years, Mary does her own

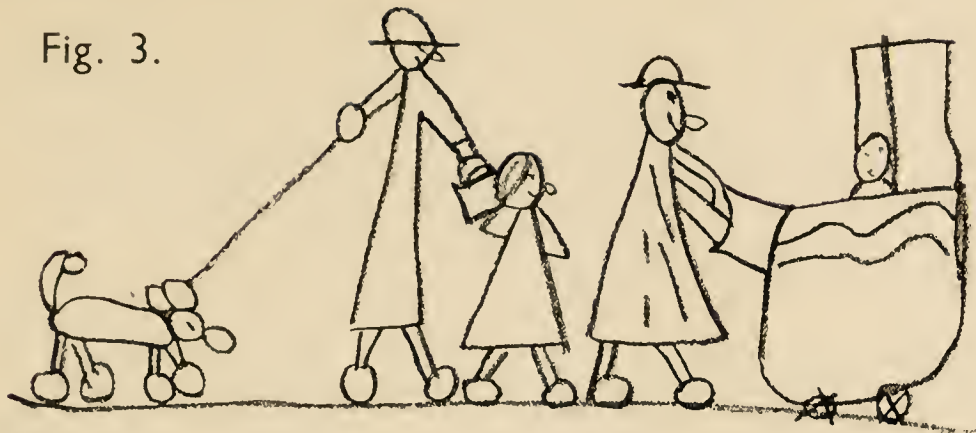
writing by her drawings. Here is one of her efforts, showing her own spelling: 'A little boy said to his Mum just look out of your buttans came undone. She looked the little boy said APRIL 1st'. Now we must give Mary confidence in her spelling. In the margin by the side of her story we write—one. buttons.—Mary has an indexed word book—one side of a page to each letter of the alphabet, and into this book she copies two or three at the time any words that she herself has found difficult. When she wants help with a new word, that, too, is entered in its proper page and now Mary is using the alphabet. She learns it by

Fig. 2.



Mary is going to school.

Fig. 3.



Mary is going to the Zoo with her Mum and her Aunt.

meeting it in its place as a key to new words. Besides writing her stories, which she often calls her 'news', Mary is given many opportunities for improving her skill.

Writing practice includes preparing labels for shops, buses, post office, or other play activity; making programmes, handbills, invitations, etc., for dramatic performances; sending birthday greetings to other children, and for this a birthday calendar is kept in school; writing and sending letters to parents and to children in another class or school.

By the time Mary is seven years it happens one day that a very old lady sends to school a most acceptable present—some dolls dressed with her own needlework. Mary writes:

'Dear Great Grandma,

'I love the three dolls you sent us. I am seven years old and I have eight dolls at home and the doll whose name is Angela her arm is broken. I do think you have made the clothes beautifully. We are doing a play and we are all in it.

Love from Mary.'

And now at eight years we see the influence of the children's reading on their stories. Here is an example which seems to be based on the story of Raggylug from *Wild Animals I have Known* (Seton Thompson). 'There was once a good little gnome, but one day he was up to mischief. He went in the woods. A strange noise was coming nearer and nearer and all at

once a great big snake jumped on the little gnome. "Mother, mother", he cried. And his mother jumped on the snake. She scratched him. At last she killed him and they were happy ever after . . .'

And another which recalls the poem, 'Berries', by Walter de la Mare: 'Once upon a time there was an old woman and she went blackberry picking from Wicking to Weep. She had only half a basket when a fairy popped out of a bush. "Go over the field to Farmer Grimes" she said. "There are lots of them there." Then she vanished in the air'.

At the same time John writes:

'Aeroplanes

'Aeroplanes are marvellous things. They can go past a hundred feet. They have strong tails to steer with. In bombers they have a stick to steer from the cabin. The other 'planes have a steering wheel to steer with. In Bombers they let bombs with a brake. The bombs are fixed on the wing. The 'planes land at 80 miles an hour. My Dad would crash into his garage at that rate. Aeroplanes do not have garages they have hangars. Some can go five hundred miles an hour.'



The panda is very nice and the people are looking at him.

Fig. 4.

And a little later with a sense of fun, a fisherman's story :

'Once there lived a little boy. His mother and father were very rich and they had plenty of clothes.

'One day the little boy had nothing to do ; so he said to his mother, "I am going fishing". So he took his rod and got the fishing bag and set off. As he was going along he met Tom. Tom said, "Where are you going, Bob?" "I am going fishing." Tom said, "I am going fishing too". So they both went together until they came to the river.

'There were lots of fishes, so they threw their lines out and pulled. When Bob pulled his rod out he saw five fishes hanging on each others tails. So Bob went home. When he got home he put the fishes away. Then he had his tea and went to bed.'

Thus writing develops, not as a subject associated with school lessons, but as an interest belonging to everyday life. The A B C is a tool which the children use, sharing their experiences and their vocabulary.

'Come let us *live* with the children.'

A School Community

G. M. Scott

Edlingham C. E. School, Northumberland

IT is June. The dewy freshness of the early morning is on the moors. The sun-warmed breeze is blowing gently over miles of heather-covered hills and the car tyres are gripping with a firm swish the fine surface of the steep winding moor road, the standing plover scarcely bothering to turn her crest as it passes. A sharp little turn and a steep drop down to the burn, across the bridge by the swimming pool—a wave from the Burn Cottage babies already at play in the sunshine—up another steep bank, past the old ruined castle, past the eleventh-century church, and the car pulls up on a well-kept triangle of grass at the door of the village school.

It is an old grey stone building by the side of the road, strong and rugged as these Border shelters must be, but looking almost beautiful this morning, with its background of tall trees in the vicarage plantation and a brave show of flowers on its southern front. A great sycamore tree stands sentinel at its steps in all its vernal freshness, the newly-marked games court gleams, and the need for the newly-painted white fence, with its big yellow A.A. safety sign, is at once apparent, as down the road they come running, the village children—racing to win the coveted post of first to the car—not a bit tired, even the five-year-olds, after their long walk to school, one mile or perhaps two

—eager to open the car door and pour out their tales of the wonders seen on their way.

What a colour in their flushed faces, poppy-red or wild rose pink—bright eyes and teeth sparkling, greeting one another with shouts and chuckles of joy—the Heirs of all the Ages !

For about ten minutes everyone is very busy. The boys bring down the morning supply of water and find time to have a look round the garden. The girls see to the flowers in the schoolroom. Coats and lunch bags are hung up in the porch, shoes are changed, and messages delivered to teacher, who is also busy glancing over the morning post and arrangements for the day. Then shrills the note of a whistle, and just before nine o'clock, at the foot of the steps, wait the two lines of boys and girls, arranged in the big-sounding phrase they have mastered 'in ascending order of magnitude'.

The mood this morning calls for a quick-step, and from the piano the lively rhythm of 'The Girl I left behind me' brings them into the schoolroom. The music slows down, the dancing little feet are gradually coaxed to quietness—a moment's pause—the mental attitude is to be adjusted, and with a formal 'Good morning' between teacher and children, all sit and the school is ready.

Roll is called and they rise for the hymn, a stately one this morning.

‘How purely hath thy speech come down
From Man’s primeval youth,
How grandly hath thy empire grown
Of Freedom, Love and Truth.’

(‘Mentally alert, physically fit, loving Truth and Beauty’ !)

A short children’s litany of thanksgiving is read this morning by a senior boy, the responses given by the children and teacher, and then follows the Lord’s Prayer. The lesson is the account of Peter and John at the Beautiful gate of the temple.

The procedure is typical of one of the oral lessons, taken as must needs be with children of all ages from five to thirteen and more. A simple, straightforward account is given with explanations to all. The older children then read it from their Bibles, while the little ones are shown the picture and answer easy questions, which ends by being a revision for all.

Nine-thirty, books away, team-braids on, and all are outside for twenty minutes physical training. There are three teams this time as the double call of the whistle lines them up—the three groups of the school. Seniors, Juniors, and Infants—blue, gold, and red. A very difficult lesson this is to plan and of necessity much simplified. The extracts from the table are taken all together with varying degrees of attainment and the three teams separate for group activities.

How fortunate we are with regard to our space and most beautiful setting ! There is plenty of grass for play and a games court that has been levelled and roughly surfaced is used for exercises—not an ideal surface by any means, but like everything else in the school, the best use possible has been made of the means at our disposal.

Into school again, where there is a quick handwashing and all are ready for an arithmetic lesson.

Here one will be able to realize the task of teaching in the same room, at the same time, and by the same teacher, every grade of arithmetic, from the babies who are just learning to count, to the senior children who are now interested in and capable of quite good work in simple mathematics. The method is

by group and individually. Each group gathers in turn round the teacher, where their work is marked, discussed, and the next step explained. Although all may not be doing exactly the same work, it comes within the range of their group, and seeing one another’s working acts as revision and help. This group then settles down to corrections and new work while the second group is taken and so on.

The internal arrangement and organization of the schoolroom had better be explained here, as it has a great deal to do with the success of the work.

The single schoolroom is a particularly sunny, pleasant one, thirty feet by fifteen, well lit by five low windows, each framing a fine picture of the surrounding hills and moors and letting in the invigorating air of this high land, soft and wallflower-scented this morning, but keen enough at times.

The colouring is good, a warm buff, with desks and panelling of a natural light-coloured wood intensified by the dark polished wood of the County Library cupboard and the modern table-desks of the Seniors, of which we are justifiably proud and keep well polished. The decoration is mainly the three large carefully filled flower vases, a few colourful pictures, but above all the figures of the children and the materials they are working with.

The constant care necessary to keep the schoolroom in its pleasant, clean condition while housing and using every single thing we need in one room is a valuable part of the children’s education. The trained appreciation of the majority for orderly and pretty things around them soon corrects any delinquents, and the new little ones realize that a litter of used milk-bottle tops and straws, toffee papers, and orange peel are anathema.

Sometimes a children’s court is held to trace a culprit and it is amusing to hear witnesses give evidence, to hear alibis established, and so on, some quite good reasoning, usually by the process of elimination, bringing home the guilt to the right quarter. The whole school has learned to write and act plays. ‘The Trial of Toad’ has been one of their greatest delights, produced only for ourselves. Everyone has a part and the author and playwright would love to see these children’s appreciation of their

humour and fine English. Its influence is incalculable and play phrases come easily into their spoken and written English from most unexpected places. Virgin soil these minds, and for this reason all the greater responsibility in the choice of books for them. An interesting sequel to this was when one of the boys, a witness of a car collision, was congratulated in the real Police Court on the way he had observed and given evidence.

To return to the arrangement. At one narrow end is the fireplace and the piano. Across the other end is the stage—quite low, firmly fixed upon trestles, and removable if need be. The stage is curtained by soft folds of folk-weave material which harmonizes with the single large picture in the background. This is the simple setting for our dramatic work.

But the stage is also the class room of the Seniors. On it their modern dark polished desks and cupboards are set—their libraries and troughs of reference books easily at hand. The stage curtains are usually open, the step up being the only boundary between the Seniors and the rest of the school, but it serves its purpose and for special private study the curtains are half-closed.

Self-disciplined, the children have themselves made the rules for the working of the school—a rule being evolved as circumstances showed its necessity. The tone is always pleasant, though the atmosphere varies according to the lesson, sometimes very serious, sometimes very gay, but easily controlled always. Underneath is the guidance of definite knowledge and clear-cut plans.

In the middle part of the room, by the windows on either side are two groups of desks—Juniors sit on the left and the little ones on the right by the door as the teacher faces them and the stage. So the school can be addressed as a whole or worked in groups according to the lesson.

Within the groups are the standards—Infants: the five, six, and seven year olds; Juniors: Standards Two, Three, and Four; Seniors: eleven and upwards. The school numbers vary between the 'teens and the twenties—at present eighteen after the May changes. A standard is often represented by

one child, but this grading is really mostly for formal arithmetic steps and the school is most often worked in groups and individually. The greatest problem is the fairest division of the single teacher's time and attention and one difficult or dull child, or a childish trouble or accident may upset the balance by holding up the work of the whole.

This is not always a drawback, as it is a lesson in social life—helping one another and a submerging of the individual interest in the common good. This is apparent throughout the school. The work of each child is known to all the others and there is no room or time for the exhibitionist or the self-assertive, the outstanding qualities of each are used for the common good and all are willing to help the weaker ones to improve.

The time-table has been very carefully drawn up after many experiments, so that while carrying out the suggestions of the Board of Education with regard to the curriculum, it has also been made possible for the teacher to be giving a lesson to one group while the other two are studying or doing practical work. There is a great temptation to use the services of the older children to help with the little ones, but this is not fair to them and it is only done if the work is educative to them both. Needless to say, on every possible occasion groups work out of doors. One of our private aims is the provision of an open-air class room.

Official visitors are very, very welcome indeed—our proof that we are part of a great system and not a forgotten outpost. There is no doubt about this. The sympathetic help and advice and inspiration of His Majesty's Inspectors and the organisers of the Education Committee is invaluable.

It would perhaps astonish some of the visitors if they knew how keenly the children's eyes and ears are used and how the speech and manners of the caller are noted.

A knock at the door and it may be a carrier, a traveller asking his way or the Director of Education. There are no ante-rooms to this school room—many unspoken questions must be instantaneously settled in the doorway. If greeted, the children acknowledge the courtesy, and unless told otherwise, go on with their own affairs, but impressions have been regis-

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by Alfred H. Body, B.A., M.Ed.

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tered and stored and their education has advanced another step.

The periodic visits of the school doctor, the dentist, and the nurse are now greatly appreciated and the value of the services well recognized even by the children as well as the parents.

This has been a digression from the opening paragraph of a typical day, but the wider viewpoint of principles may help the explanation more than a detailed account of the routine.

To return to the morning lessons. Everything that can be simplified to avoid 'patchiness' and ensure a connected scheme of work has been done, such as the use of one series of textbooks in each subject throughout the school, one style of writing, one method of arrangement and setting down of written work. This is to save the very precious time by formation of habits and to avoid repeated explanations. The children know clearly what they are expected to do and can at any time go

on working alone—an adaptation of many educational theories combined to suit the circumstances of this school.

At ten-thirty is the welcome break and milk.

The milk bar is run by the Senior children in turn, change given, the account kept, and the weekly total handed to the farmer. Lack of space forbids further detail.

Lunch is at twelve and is taken in school by nearly all the children. They set it and clear away and tidy the room. All have duties in turn which must be carried out with expedition as the short lunch hour flies. At twelve-thirty, most days, the school is emptied. Out of doors they go for a game of deck-tennis or a walk in the garden—plenty to do always.

On wet days they play indoor games or an impromptu wireless programme (without any set) is broadcast from behind the stage curtains by a very young auntie or uncle—often most amusingly imitative.

On this particular June day we have the

usual summer term variation. As twelve strikes the children disappear, and in a few moments there they go racing down the road in their swimming suits to the swimming pool they have made for themselves by damming the burn with sandbags. There they have about fifteen minutes of sheer delight, big and little, boys and girls. This is extended on Friday afternoons into the games period, when formal swimming instruction is given.

After their swim and a brisk rub down, lunch is more welcome than ever. Hot or cold drinks are given in school and the proof of the mothers' good choice of the lunches they have packed for them was shown in the good report at the doctor's nutrition survey, their strong little bodies and great energy.

At one o'clock music holds them again until all are settled and ready for the afternoon's work. Written work is often taken for the first period and the remainder of the afternoon given to practical subjects. Again space forbids detail of what are perhaps the most truly educative lessons for these particular

children, especially the older ones. The 'agricultural bias' is here and we are trying to establish the links with the County Agricultural Experiment Station. All the children are connected with the land and its work in some form or other and their abilities lie usually in this direction rather than in the academic. The after-school careers of the majority are back to the land, although quite a fair proportion qualify for admittance to a secondary school and an even greater number go on to some private high school, the girls these mostly.

It is most encouraging to the writer to learn from the pages of *The New Era* and from personal observation of many and varied types of schools, how closely the practical instruction given here in art, music, handicrafts, and gardening follows the trend of modern ideas, although it has been developed in one of the most isolated schools of the country and is a compound of the settled peace and quiet of the ancient things of the land and of modern thought.

What we are doing

Kathleen Rich

Old Road Infant and Junior School,
Chesterfield

IN these days of high-sounding phrases in speech and writing, it is necessary to distinguish between what we are saying about education and what we are doing about it in the schools.

Never, probably, has so much vapid clap-trap been uttered by those not occupied directly in the business of education. Never have so many meaningless slogans formed the stock-in-trade of the amiable amateur. Never has the lack of a common viewpoint between the theorist and the practical teacher been so complete. Never has so wide an interest been shown in the work of the schools, or the teacher been so zealous.

Since 1925 great progress has been made and great disappointments have been experienced.

How can the aims of modern education be realized in the present-day class room designed

to accommodate fantastic numbers of young children and seldom equipped suitably for modern educational practice? The answer to this question is provided by the enthusiasm of the staffs, the co-operation of the parents, and the response of the children.

There is ample evidence that none of these is lacking. The teachers are looking for something more than examination results, although success in this direction is by no means an indication of a badly organized school. The parents are beginning to realize that the school is their affair and that its success is largely dependent upon their co-operation. The children are finding that school is the place where work and pleasure go hand in hand; where community of activity and interests is to be found; where friendships are made and enmities sunk in common endeavour.

We think of our school and even speak of it as The Firm. Every member of the staff, many of the parents, and most of the children regard themselves as partners. No concern in the world has so large a board of directors, each of whom knows that The Firm will yield dividends of pleasure and interest in proportion to the capital, represented by enthusiasm and hard work, which is sunk in it.

This being the spirit pervading our school how can it translate into class room practice some of the theories of education which have gained currency since the issue of the Hadow Report?

I will deal with one, only, of these and try to show how our large Infants and Junior School is facing the problem of providing a suitable environment for the development of the children's active or latent tastes and talents.

'Providing an environment', one of the catch phrases of modern educational jargon, implies the provision of opportunities which appeal to the child's own interests and preferences; and the abolition, so far as is possible, of group or class activities designed by the teacher to amuse or occupy the children regarded as a homogeneous mass. New opportunities are constantly occurring of carrying our aim into practice and I give a few concrete examples.

The School Post Office

The equipment of the post office consists merely in a replica in wood of the red wall box used by the postal authorities. It is fastened to the wall of the school hall and one child only has access to the key. It is cleared once daily and a movable card on the front of the box indicates the time of clearance. The staff consists of a collecting postman, a sorter, and a delivery man, all older boys of the school. Each afternoon the collecting postman unlocks the box and clears it, handing the letters to the sorter who passes them on to the delivery man. They are taken to the various classes and the postman calls the names of the addressees who claim their correspondence.

The parents have joined in the game and when they are issuing invitations to children's parties they send the bundle of envelopes to be posted at school.

Some children make appointments with each



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other for the evenings and weekends through the school post office. Many of the letters are written simply for the thrill of posting in a real post box and receiving a reply by official mail. Children write to members of the staff when they wish to engage class rooms or equipment for after-school meetings or rehearsals. Dates for shows, as described later, are often booked by post. The whole point is that the post office is just part of the environment and is not used as gilding for a pill of English exercise. If a child wishes to write a letter about anything at all to any other child in the school he does so, knowing that he may post it with as much confidence in its safe delivery as if he were using the government postal facilities.

The fact that letters thus written are almost invariably better expressed and constructed than the normal school exercise follows naturally on the pleasure of writing them for a purpose dictated by the child's own interest. An elder boy of retarded mental development who had never shown any capacity for written expression began to write quite charming little letters to friends whom he wished to meet after school and took pleasure in his new-found means of communicating with them.

The necessity for addressing envelopes clearly and correctly has taught the children the value of rules which might otherwise seem merely tiresome and meaningless.

Envelopes are made from time to time during the handwork periods, and stocks of these and of paper are available on application by children who wish to use them.

The Puppet Theatre

This, also, is used simply as a means of outlet for the children's activities. A certain period is set apart each week for puppet shows. The children construct the plays, learn the lines and invent the stage business themselves. If a child decides to give a show he writes to a member of the staff through the school post office asking for a date to be assigned to him. He then chooses his own cast and lets them copy their lines which they are required to learn. He next asks, usually by letter, for the use of a class room and theatre and puppets after school on the days when it will be convenient for his company to stay. The rehearsals

thus begin so that the show may be ready by the date arranged. The actors' rule of never letting his public down is faithfully observed.

Nearly all the plays are original, but a little book of puppet plays is available in school for those children who wish to put on a show, but distrust their own powers of invention.

The girls make costumes when necessary.

Exchange Bureau

There is a certain phase of child development when swopping becomes a necessity of existence. Facilities for this are provided by a central bureau in charge of one of the older boys by means of which articles to be swopped may be advertised on a notice board.

Some experience of the relative value of articles is developed and in the case of postage stamps some useful information often changes hands along with the stamps.

Facilities for Informal Dramatic Work

On Friday afternoons, time is set apart for any class or group of children to entertain another class if they wish. Notice is given of this intention and the class to be entertained is specified and the date booked. The child who has initiated the idea usually produces a play, although other forms of entertainment are not barred. He chooses his players and rehearsals begin, a class room having been booked for the purpose after school hours. A series of minor tragedies is in store for the new recruit to amateur play production who almost invariably chooses a story with twenty or thirty characters.

The producer may come in tears to a member of the staff when School Sports Day draws near with the devastating news that Father Bear has gone on the field to practise jumping and no one can be found to take his place.

Constructional Activities

The large group model so beloved of the amateur educationist only too often proves the grave of the hopes and aspirations of a large proportion of the children in a full-sized Junior School class. With the best will in the world the teacher finds it difficult to utilize the efforts of more than a fraction of the children on a

model which is to be kept within reasonable spatial limits ; and whether he chooses the best or the worst productions some of the children are bound to be disappointed at not seeing their contribution mounted or assembled. It sometimes happens, however, that a child, himself, conceives the idea of an illustrative model and will carry it out with the assistance of those children who are really interested and willing to give time, thought, and labour to the cause.

Facilities and assistance are available for children who want to begin such a scheme. Some time ago a really excellent model of Stonehenge was made by six or eight children under the direction of one of them. Some of the materials were supplied at school ; others were begged from friends. Most of the work was done at school, the group being given periods during school hours to make and assemble the parts. A girl who was good on the artistic side made and lettered labels for the model.

In this instance, again, the staff provided the environment, not the motive power.

Hobbies

Some time ago an exhibition was organized to which every child who wished contributed some evidence of his out-of-school activities. The only stipulation was that the exhibit should not represent school work in any form.

Among the sections of the exhibition were toys, games, collections, favourite books, curiosities, working models. The chief centre of interest was Pet's Corner. Here were assembled a large cage of pedigree puppies which arrived on a lorry and was carried in by four interested parents ; several cages of prize canaries ; about twenty tortoises at various stages of youth and decrepitude ; kittens, which mercifully slept through most of the proceedings ; goldfish ; guinea pigs ; rabbits ; budgerigars. Space had been reserved for a nanny goat, but to the unspoken relief of the staff it did not arrive.

Among the collections of stamps, wild flowers, cigarette cards, and other childhood delights, a girl exhibited some hundreds of

match boxes from all parts of the world, all duly mounted and labelled with their country of origin.

An interesting feature of the collection of curiosities was a letter found by a child's father in dismantling an old country house. It had been written at the close of the eighteenth century by a relative living in London to the owner of the mansion, and was an excellent specimen of the genteel begging letter of a more polite and more indigent age.

The exhibition provided the parents and staff with an interesting view of the wide interests and activities of school children out of school.

School Canteen

Biscuits are sold in school to be eaten with morning milk. Incidentally, the profits provide the equipment for various school activities, including games and sports.

The biscuits are placed on tables in the hall before break and children of retarded development are chosen as salesmen and women. It is amusing to note the real talent for salesmanship displayed by some of them. They all show disappointment if their own particular line proves unpopular. When selling ceases for the day the children are expected to render verbally a true account of biscuits sold, cash taken, and goods left on hand. This they seldom fail to do accurately, the simple arithmetical processes involved having a purpose behind them which is not apparent in the routine class room problem.

Provision of Equipment

Many of the simple devices for providing an interesting environment cost nothing at all. Others, such as the puppet theatre, are provided by the ingenuity of the school caretaker, who is also a member of the Firm, and are financed by the profits of the school canteen and an occasional jumble sale.

A child's interest is not bounded by the cost but by the suitability of the instrument of appeal, and of this the child himself is the best judge.

The next issue of 'The New Era' will be the September-October number appearing on October 1st. It will be a double number on Psychology and the School.

Some Projects in a Junior School

Edith B. Warr

High March, Beaconsfield.

Author of 'The New Era in the Junior School'

THE children of Group II who are between 7 and 8½ invariably come back after the holidays eagerly asking 'What are we going to do this term?' After much discussion some central interest which appeals to everyone is decided upon, and then comes the planning of the special part each is to contribute.

In some groups, the desire to know something leads to the need to construct, but with children of this age the construction is of first importance. It is always 'Let us *make* a farm, a train, a ship', or whatever it is to be.

During last summer holidays the making of a roundabout at Beaconsfield, on the main London to Oxford road, had attracted a certain amount of attention, and the diversion of traffic and the work of the policeman on point duty there was being talked about. 'Let's make the roundabout, let's make a car' were suggestions received with enthusiasm by some, but not by all. Colin said he wanted to be a policeman; Peter argued that he couldn't because it was a difficult job and you had to be trained for it. However, the idea was at once popular, and everyone in the Group wanted to be a policeman. The mistress in charge of the Group suggested that they might all attend a police school, and after taking a test they could become P.C.'s, and later those who could pass a more difficult test might become Inspectors. There was universal agreement with this plan, and the question now arose: 'What must a policeman know?'

The following plan of study was made:

1. *Policemen must know the district in which they are stationed in order to be able to direct people to places quickly.*

Map books were kept by the children in which simple plans starting with their own room at school were gradually developed to plans of Beaconsfield, two walks being taken and then mapped. Individual children subsequently followed this up in their free time and traced out many walks on their

maps. Points of the compass were learnt. Practice in the giving of clear directions, and a knowledge of where the roads in each direction led, was undertaken. In this connection the history of the London to Oxford Road was traced to the days before cars. A frieze was made by the children showing the modern stream-lined cars and road house back to the stage coaches that stopped to change horses at the 'White Hart' when it was a tiny inn.

2. *Policemen should know something of the history of the Police Force.*

The stories were told of the Watchman, the Bow Street Runners, the first 'Bobbies' of the Metropolitan Police, etc. Books were kept with hectographed drawings which the children coloured and described.

3. *Policemen must understand the traffic signals and the rules of the road.*

A large floor map of Beaconsfield district was made by the Group mistress, and the children put in the map signs for the church, the inns, the station, post office, school, etc., and marked in the fields and woods and the names of the roads. They made small models of cars and vans, etc., which were directed by the members of the 'police school'. Large Belisha Beacons and Road Signs were made for use in free play in the playground and garden.

As a result of the many and varied questions the children asked, investigation work was undertaken, and suitable reference books and pictures were put in the library. Some of the children just looked up the things they wanted to know, some spent more time in reading, while others made special books in which they wrote short accounts, in their own words, of what they had read on such topics as 'How Cars are Made', 'How Traffic Lights Work', 'Good and Bad Roads and the People who Look after Them', 'The Story of Petrol from

an Oilfield to the Petrol Pump'. Most of the children took a great pride in these books, and put pictures in them, and some copied suitable poems such as 'Road Menders', 'Country Lanterns', 'Stupidity Street', etc.

The part of the teacher in all this was to see that suitable reference books were available, and to help children to use them by putting book-marks and numbers of the pages which would be found useful for a particular purpose, and to give individual help and Group lessons when they were needed.

A question arose during the 'police training' to which no answer could be found, and the obvious thing seemed to be to ask a policeman. The children saw a constable standing outside the school and two of them asked him if he would come and talk to them. He came one afternoon and answered questions for an hour, bringing with him a truncheon and a pair of handcuffs. He talked about the various kinds of work a constable has to do, the examination that must be passed before becoming a sergeant, police uniforms, what a prison cell is like, and showed how finger prints were taken. He was stormed with questions. Belinda asked whether boys are worse than girls, Colin wanted to know whether every criminal makes a slip, and John whether policemen are allowed to hit below the belt!

Whether they were painting a large 'Safety First' poster, or trying to fix the wheels on a van, or working out a simple problem of time or cost of running expenses, they worked with an interest and energy that is possible only when the work is motivated by the children's own interest.

Last term Group II followed up this transport project by an interest in trains and the making of a large wooden engine. Part of their room was turned into Beaconsfield Station platform with Wyman's Bookstall, and Nicholas and Ann who were less interested in construction, ran the 'Beaconsfield Fortnightly', a hectographed magazine containing news and an exciting serial story. While the making of the train was in progress there was a visit to Beaconsfield station, where the stationmaster kindly had a goods train shunted along to the platform so that the children could mount it and question the engine driver.

The gradual extending of interest outside the children's immediate environment as the result of the help given by experts in connection with their project has been interesting to watch. Group I began to build a little house in the school garden. They measured out the ground and dug the foundations, but the making of mortar and the building up of the bricks was a difficult matter. As their results did not satisfy the majority, they at once said 'Let us ask Mr. Berry who stokes the boiler, he will know'. Mr. Berry builds the houses in Bekonscot model village and so is an authority.

At a later stage there is the desire to give as well as to ask help from those outside the school. It was due to the making by a Group of 10-11-year-old children of the comparison between the position of the Jews at the time of the Babylonian exile and the Jews in Germany to-day and their demand to be allowed to help some of the children that there are now three refugees in the school. We gladly accepted the children's suggestion and made the necessary arrangements, being greatly helped by a committee of parents. The unaffected desire on the part of the children to help and encourage their new friends in every possible way has been as enlightening as it is encouraging.

I knew that Group IV was ready for yet wider experiences in social contact, so we picked up our work and went to Bruges for a fortnight to continue it there in other surroundings. The first eight weeks in the Spring Term were spent in preparation; in studying the geography of Belgium, leaving some things to be tested and proved by real experience; in making a parallel of the outline of the history of Flanders and of England, to be supplemented when we got there by a written account of English history in connection with Bruges; in studying the characteristics of Gothic architecture, many beautiful examples of which we should see; in learning about the money and practice in calculation of metric weights and measures.

The time in Bruges visiting the museums and picture galleries, and little odd streets of historic interest; sketching by the canals and in Notre Dame; walking on the boulevards by the ancient 'gateways' and windmills, or

shopping by the market square, or playing on the sand dunes on the coast ; or the excursion into Holland, the French 'speeches', and the making of the Record Book were all experiences of great educational value.

It was not an isolated school journey, but part of a plan in which the children are guided

and helped so that they may satisfy their own needs as far as possible by means of doing, making, and investigating real things ; by working hard and trying to overcome their own difficulties ; by a gradual enlarging of their own experience, so that, as they grow up, they may have more to give.

Keeping out of it

Vernon Rosetti

**Davenant Foundation School,
Whitechapel, London**

THIS is the first time we have used scenery, and I hope you'll find it a novelty. So if you'll close your eyes while we get it ready we'll begin as soon as I can.'

So spoke the form producer of IB to the audience, composed of the four members of the form who weren't acting, and myself, armed with a programme. The allusion to scenery puzzled me somewhat. I didn't see where it was to come from, because after all you can't do much, theoretically, with an old dining room dating from the sixteenth century whose only furniture is thirty desks, a blackboard, stool and easel, a form, a trestle, and two whitewood tables. But our audience is always honest about closing its eyes while the 'scenes' are changed—there is no stage, platform, curtain, or screen—so I closed my eyes.

The innovation of 'scenery', I discovered, consisted of the use for the first time, of an old wooden shutter which had always hung closely folded beside a window opening on to a main London high road. Our other window, which won't open, gives a view of an acre of concrete playground bordered by a garage. The shutter, when pulled across, shut out the light ; an electric bulb was used instead, and with a piece of green paper over it, gave an eerie pale colour to the scene, during which two pirates fought and killed each other with ghastly gurglings ; meanwhile, a boy under the table with an attache case half-full of rice, tipped it up and down to give a convincing imitation of waves breaking on the seashore.

This was, as they said, the first time they had used the shutters ; but it wasn't the first time, by any means, that ingenuity had been

applied to transform an old dining room into the gnomes' castle, the state-room of a large liner, a slave galley, or Scotland Yard, for the benefit of a small audience every Thursday morning. The moral of the experiment is, leave the children alone ; not entirely new, but there are several factors which militate against success in our case. Apart from our position, bordered by a main road, a pub, a workmen's hostel, and a garage, apart from the dilapidation of the building itself, the children are of an excitable temperament, and have little other opportunity for self-expression. Considerable abuse of unwonted freedom would be understandable. Everyone said it was certain, some cited cases of where and when it had been so abused. Only, in spite of the fact that I don't believe in punishment and never raise my voice, it wasn't so with me. Here is what happened.

Last September, IB and I talked it over and decided to have plays on Thursday mornings. We elected a producer and committee of six, two of whom were artists and controlled the programme department. The first play lasted three minutes, consisted of one scene in which four characters talked all at once, had no beginning, no end, and as far as the audience could see, no middle. It was, in fact, a thoroughgoing flop, and the audience didn't hesitate to say so. It was explained that only one rehearsal had been possible, so next week they had two ; by the middle of the term they had four a week, and now the regular number is five, unless a particular effect is aimed at, in which two or more weeks are taken, comprising ten rehearsals. I have never seen any of these

rehearsals, never knew when they were taking place, and have never given any suggestion or 'help', because it wasn't invited. I gather that rehearsals take place in playtimes, lunch-times, or after school. But in any case, considerable time has been spent, and a school subject has to be thrilling to make children in this district forego the limited time they do get for cricket and football. When something affecting the form room or the school was contemplated I was consulted, as when they asked to use the old copper as a property box, or wanted to turn the table upside down to make it look like a torture chamber; otherwise I was told nothing, and had no more rights than any other member of the audience.

The chief progress during the year has been skill in acting and producing, and in the use of ingenuity. Plots have not changed very much, but then you don't want to see boys of eleven playing Othello or portraying elemental passions. They started with mad professors who stole bodies and brought the dead to life, produced a connected whole of six plays under the general title 'Crime Does Not Pay', and graduated through gangsters to pirates, where they now are. And they won't move on until every ounce of pleasure has been extracted from pirates; then they will move on with more vim to a new interest, and get all they can out of that which is living. At any rate, now, one character speaks at a time, and he has learnt through the directions of the producer, the criticisms of the others and the discreet use of mime before his mirror at home, how to get the effect he wants. Meanwhile, other groups of characters talk in mime, keep the act going, and contribute to the general effect. It is surprising the number of professional tricks they have acquired—but acquired by trial and error, self-criticism and enthusiasm, not by being taught and drilled by an adult. I have never been more than a spectator, but I certainly couldn't have taught them more about acting than they have found out for themselves. They have learnt everything by actual experience, which is the only true education, and what they have learnt they apply with true understanding. They are not at the mercy of the producer; everyone discusses each problem, but his word is in the end

law—they agreed that this was necessary, after finding that it was the only way to get a play finished. Every week they learn something more. After using the shutter to produce night, they now open it slowly to show that dawn is breaking; a boy whose part is that of an eighteenth-century squire ties his sister's hair ribbon in his shoes and struts about; but probably their finest characteristic is their co-operation and ability to overcome difficulties. The ruler that has just shot a man dead is now a spy-glass; five minutes after it will be a sword or a cigar; the wooden form which was just used as the battlements of a castle is now a longboat, which six men are rowing, while a boy under the table swishes the rice about and moans to show how hard the wind is blowing; when the magic mirror has to tell which is the fairest in the land, a boy behind the blackboard convinces us all, and Snow White kissed the dwarfs with a flourish even though he had just had a scrap with Dopey and copied Doc's homework. Captain Blood, in one play, whose characteristic was spitting straight, actually did spit, accidentally, in the steward's eye. It was a mistake, but he couldn't stop to apologize then; the steward, taken aback, said 'Your aim is true, sir'. 'It took me twenty years to learn to spit like that', said Blood, and the play proceeded.

Scenes get longer and longer, more complete and rounded. Their latest play took forty-five minutes to perform, and had eighteen scenes. The audience, which wouldn't hesitate to show boredom, was gripped throughout, and the players had found out how to get this effect entirely alone.

What will happen next week, I don't know. I accidentally ran into a rehearsal and was shown a pile of wigs, four toy pistols, a girl's frock, and a bleeding chest, an effect produced at the cost of one lipstick (sister's). What this play will amount to or where it will lead, I can't say. Their acting at present shows great spontaneity, as they never bother to learn parts, but just get the gist of the character they have to play, and act accordingly. But whatever happens, I am certain of one thing; I shall leave them alone; the only way I can help is by clapping.

Nature Study in a Rural School

C. Mary Norman

Copdock Church School, Ipswich

SITUATED in the centre of an agricultural area in rural surroundings, we have a very wide scope for the study of Nature, which is my special subject.

The chief work in this direction is carried out by the Juniors of the school, which is all-standard with a roll of eighty.

Since the boys in most cases will later become farm workers, and the girls will most probably find work near, enabling them to spend their spare time in the country, I try to encourage a love of nature study in all its branches and a knowledge of the chief plant and creature pests that are encountered in this district.

The children are now making an individual collection of the many wild flowers growing in this area. They each keep a note book stating the name of the flower, the place where they found it, and the date of collecting it. I keep a class record of every flower brought in every month. Thus we can name the 36 flowers that were blooming in January, 1939, the 50 in March, the 151 in May. My classroom is very small, and space is limited, but one spare desk is devoted to the most interesting flowers brought each week. These are labelled and any interesting fact about them is noted. The most interesting of all flowers found this term is a member of the Goosegrass family, *Asperula armensis*, which is a common cornfield plant of Central Europe, England being the extreme north-western limit of its natural range. From a reliable source I have information that it has been mentioned in Devonshire, but not in Hampshire, Surrey, or Suffolk. Other less common flowers include the Bird's Nest Orchis, Herb Paris, and the Butterfly Orchis.

This term we have made a successful collection of the plants mentioned in *Bulletin No. 75 of the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries*, 'Poisonous Plants on the Farm'. These include plants that are definitely poisonous, plants that are suspected poisonous, and plants that affect milk and dairy produce. Specimens of these

flowers have been pressed and mounted on cards. Facts concerning their time of flowering, poisonous properties, method of rendering harmless (if any), and recorded harm have been attached under each specimen, and they are all now ready for future use.

Our small window sill holds six subterrariums. In these we are watching the growth and development of various creatures brought in from the school garden by the Senior girls and boys. Many of these creatures are grubs of beetles and flies which are unidentifiable in the 'grub' state. In the subterrarium we can follow their growth, catch them in the final stage, and find out exactly what they are and whether their influence in the garden is for good or bad, and how to control them if necessary.

One such a grub, that of a beetle, entered a subterrarium in March, pupated in April, and 'hatched' out as a beetle at the end of May. One other subterrarium contains an unknown larva. The others house centipides, millepedes, wireworms, and leather jackets. One leather jacket has pupated and we hope to soon see the crane fly emerge. The Seniors have begun making a study of these creatures, finding out which are pests and how to control them, both in their own garden and on the farm.

On the large window sill stand six large roomy caterpillar cages. (These, with the subterrariums, were made for us by one of the County School handicraft centres.) The month of May has brought forth seven interesting kinds of moth caterpillars—Oak Eggar, Drinker, Magpie, Tiger, Gold Tail, Hackey, and Figure of Eight. In one of the cages there are ladybirds which feed ravenously on the supplies of greenfly provided for them. Some eggs have already appeared, and larva will soon hatch, thus the children will learn the life cycle of one of the gardener's best friends. Another cage, furnished with grass roots and a deep saucer of water, provides a summer home for snails and three newts.

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There are two aquariums. One is the home of a goldfish, bought for threepence four years ago. He has grown fat and big during those four years. Keeping him company are several pond snails and fresh-water mussels. The other aquarium contains several sticklebacks and caddis fly larvae. On my table is a bowl of really fine tadpoles we have reared from the eggs. Feeding happily upon these same tadpoles are two large water beetles (*Dyticus marginatis*). They are a pair, and the female should soon now produce eggs.

In February the children made a wormery. The bottom was removed from a large sweet jar and the lid was pierced with holes. This jar was then inverted over another jar full of earth. Layers of various soils, chalk included, were placed in the sweet jar. Six worms were then allowed to enter. The bottom jar of soil has been kept moist, some water has been poured on the top of the wormery, but the pierced lid has ensured complete drainage. A control jar was set up—the layers of soil being exactly the same as in the sweet jar. Now

the effect of the worms tunnelling can clearly be seen. We estimate that in another month's time there will be no discernible 'layers' of soil in the sweet jar. Thus the children will clearly see the use of the worm, that industrious tunnel-maker.

A nest of ants was brought to school in the early days of April. They were transferred to a formicarium where the children can watch their activities. They are fed with sugar and water. They have made many tunnels and the 'nursery' has been moved from place to place. Observation of these busy little creatures throughout the next few months should prove worth while.

Every day the children are given a few minutes to write in their nature diaries. They note the kind of clouds they have seen when coming to school, the weather, and anything of interest they have noticed. To encourage observation, the most interesting things are written on a monthly chart which hangs in the class room for everyone to see. I should also mention that interest is encouraged by a

system of 'point' giving for nature work, which all counts in with their other work in their team competitions. (The class is divided into four teams.)

In conclusion I must say that I find that in the case of children who have left school their interest, aroused in the Junior class, does not

abate as they grow up. Many times I am stopped by former students and asked the name of some flower, or given some creature to identify. Thus am I encouraged to continue to try and instil into the children's minds that interest which, once gained, is never to be lost.

History in a Rural School

George W. Church

Bacton Church School, Suffolk

'T's too wet to go in the garden now, what shall we do?'

'Please, can we have a history story?'

They had asked the same thing, full of eagerness, on more than one occasion. I have for long been very much in favour of school 'activities' of all kinds, and this repeated request made me think. Here were children in a school equipped for handwork, art, and so on, volunteering to 'sit and listen' to their class teacher. It then occurred to me that probably the easiest method of learning is just to 'sit and listen', and however modern a school may be we need not lose sight of that fact.

This is a full standard rural school, the children referred to were working on local history, but as we are not slaves to our set curriculum we put it on one side for the time being and had our story.

In the junior part of the school our history teaching is almost entirely by stories; and when possible some attempt is made at dramatization—the battles between the Norsemen and Saxons being very much enjoyed! The children probably consider Alexander the Great, Cinderella, Romulus and Remus, Jack the Giant Killer, and Alfred the Great very much in the same category and may get them rather muddled up. But if they are interested and ask for more, why should grown-up teachers worry too much? Debunking can come at a very much later stage. Incidentally, the only time we can devote to world history is this story-telling in the Junior School.

In the Senior part of the school our scheme is cyclic, repeating itself every four years. The

first three are along ordinary chronological lines, but special reference is always made to those parts which affect our own village, and the fourth year is devoted to local history.

Each time we tackled local history we tried to produce a book, but we found that the history, geography, and rural science became so interwoven that we have entitled the book *Our Village*.

Our plans have not always been very successful, we hit upon some lines of work which produced very little that could be of value from a teacher's standpoint, but we are gradually finding some that are really worth while. I do not think it would be very useful to mention all my unsuccessful ventures. The fault may have lain in the means used rather than in the end attempted and many teachers may have made a success where I have failed, but I will briefly refer to one or two.

Field names are said to be of historic value, but although we collected many, some of which were interesting, we were not, apparently, 'getting anywhere'. We made a big land utilization map of the whole village for a certain year, but I shall not repeat it as much of the work was repetitive, and no one seemed particularly interested in results.

This time we are working on different lines. For land utilization, we are concentrating on two farms, one large, and run on market garden lines, the other, smaller, and worked on Norfolk, or four course rotation. In a few minutes we can make a tracing from the 6" map, then take it to the farm, write down any particulars required, and transfer it to the 25"

map when we return to school. We have the goodwill of the farmers concerned, and, consequently, can go anywhere on their farms any time we like. Naturally we endeavour not to abuse hospitality. The extensive use of tractors is causing great changes on the farms, old fields are being put together, and the historian must gather his information now or much of it will be lost.

The class was divided into groups, each group finding out what it could about the particular subject and reporting to the others. They were allowed to consult any reference books and parish records, and to have the help of the teachers when available. Some of the subjects taken were: The Farm, The Church, Houses, Parish Records, Poor People, Administration of the Law, Manor Court Rolls, The School, and the School Garden.

Many documents, valuable from a historian's standpoint, must be just lying about in church chests. Most clergymen are willing to allow serious students to search among these documents and many interesting facts may come to light. Almost every parish has many of the following: Manor Court Rolls, Registers of Births, Marriages and Deaths, Overseers Accounts, Parish Certificates, Removal Orders, Apprentices' Agreements, and many documents about the tenure of land. In our case many

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of these have been shown to the children and much useful information gained for notes on our village. After consultation with rector and churchwardens many of these documents have been sent to the County Hall, where arrangements have been made for sorting, indexing, and storing.

This inspection of parish records takes place during winter, as summer term is too short for all the outside work we would like to do. We find it comparatively easy to collect a great deal of relevant material; to produce an interesting book will not be so simple. Nevertheless, while we wonder about our destination, we feel that the travelling has been more than worth while.

Farm Science and the Curriculum

Thomas Walker

Shaftoe Trust School, Northumberland

BEFORE discussing the general aims of the school and some of the rural activities which have been developed, it will be of great value to give a brief description of the school and its neighbourhood and the people it serves.

An all standard school with an average number of just over two hundred on the roll, it is situated in the South Tyne valley midway between the East and West Coasts. In pre-war

days the district had prosperous lead and coal mines, but there has been a steady decline in these industries and the district is now practically dependent on agriculture as a means of its livelihood. It was this latter factor which determined the type of curriculum which has been developed during the last seven or eight years. The Senior School was reorganized and the curriculum given an agricultural bias, and, under the County scheme of reorganization,

is scheduled as an area school to serve the surrounding district. It should be stated here that the school is fortunate in that it belongs to the John Shaftoe Educational Foundation, from which it has an annual income which has enabled it to develop certain practical activities in addition to those usually found in a rural school.

Our aim during the last few years has been to develop self-reliance, initiative, and adaptability in our pupils, and an increasing proportion of time has been devoted to practical activities to foster this aim. At no time has it been our object to turn out boys and girls equipped only for work in agricultural pursuits, but, by basing our curriculum on the agricultural environment of our pupils, we have had some measure of success in developing a type of pupil which has the adaptability to make good in walks of life far removed from agriculture. Thus, to quote a few examples, during the last three years, two boys have entered the Royal Air Force as aircraft apprentices, two others are carving out careers for themselves in the Mercantile Marine, and an increasing number of our girls have entered the nursing and child nursing professions.

From the beginning we have attempted to correlate our subjects as far as possible. To this end the development of our garden has been the core round which our other activities have grown. Accordingly much of our boys' work in wood and concrete has been devoted to making useful and ornamental adjuncts to our main garden. They have constructed their own greenhouse, ornamental pond and stone seat, garden shelter and rustic work. All these have given an added interest to the comprehensive scheme of gardening through which they progress. Our aim is to produce always crops which can find a market at an economic price, but a spirit of investigation into the problems of gardening is fostered by a proportionate amount of time being devoted to experiments with soils, plants, and insect control. The garden also has its propagation and farm crop borders in addition to the usual ornamental flower beds and borders, the latter being cultivated by the girls.

In our woodwork classes we hold the view that the average country boy develops a higher

standard of craftsmanship by working on large models. Thus, as soon as a boy shows reasonable facility in the use of the commoner tools and is able to make joints with fair accuracy, he is given the opportunity of developing his craft in the construction of a large model. This may be the work of himself or he may 'team up' with others of his class on some project for the school garden, poultry, or bees. Our latest and most ambitious project, just completed, has been the construction of a brooder and incubator house for the development of our work in poultry-keeping. This house, 30' x 9', has a wood superstructure on a 4'—6' brick wall, and the whole of the work including the concrete floor, interior fittings, and wiring for the electrical installation, has been carried out by the boys. In addition, the project provided other useful exercises. The boys drew up the plan, worked out the quantities of the materials required, and obtained estimates for these materials from local firms. Though much of our work has been of this kind, each boy in his second year usually makes some article useful in his home, as, for example, occasional tables, cabinets, book shelves, etc.

Poultry-keeping has been developed over a period of seven years and is proving of increasing value in the school curriculum. Started on ample lines with one portable unit containing twelve hens, it has grown until we now possess two portable units each containing twelve pullets, a breeding pen of a like number of Rhode Island Red hens, and additional pens of English Game and Light Sussex hens for demonstrating sex linking and the value of crossing for producing an ideal table bird. Each year chickens are reared both naturally and by incubator and electrically heated brooder. A Young Farmers' Poultry Club has recently been inaugurated and has a membership of twenty.

Not the least valuable side of this activity is the material it affords for our arithmetic lessons. Thus egg recording, costings, quarterly and annual balance sheets are all valuable items in helping to make our arithmetic 'real'.

A general science scheme, which begins with nature study in our Junior classes, has been designed to give the pupils an under-

standing of the value of science in everyday life. Here, too, much of the work is correlated with the work in the garden, with our poultry, and with our bees. Besides this, our senior boys have an additional course in practical electricity.

Closely related to the science course is our bee-keeping, which is an attractive subject to many of our pupils during the summer months. A glass observation hive installed in the Science Room enables the pupils at an early age to study the work of the hive, while most of the practical work of bee-keeping comes within the scope of the older pupils.

Limitations of space will not permit me to make more than a passing reference to other activities which include weather recording, regional survey, and the usual domestic course for the girls.

While practical activities have been developed to a considerable extent, the place of art, literature, drama, physical training, and music has not been neglected, and the advent of a new hall with stage in the near future provides a hope that these subjects will play an even greater part in forming the characters of our pupils than they do now. To develop the habit of reading for profit and for pleasure one room has been set aside as a library. Here the pupil has access to a small library of books, and to a selection of daily, weekly, and monthly periodicals. Senior boys and girls act as librarians, and it is already playing a valuable part in the social life of the school.

Annual excursions are organized to widen the experience of our children beyond their local environment. These, too, afford a valuable contact with our parents, many of whom accompany the children in our larger excursions.

The question may be asked: To what extent has the extra time devoted to practical subjects justified itself? Not the least contribution has been the increase of happiness it has brought to the majority of our pupils. Happiness has brought with it an added keenness to progress in the three R's where hitherto the duller child had no chance to shine. To him school is now a place where he can achieve

something and with this sense of achievement comes a desire to progress further. The number of pupils who have voluntarily stayed the 'extra year' testifies to this, as well as the ever-increasing number who call to see how we are progressing whenever they are in the vicinity.

What of the future? In autumn we shall be recommencing work in a new farm-engineering workshop and dairy which are now nearing completion. Though our plans with these are still in the experimental stage we are confidently anticipating that they will play a big part in our curriculum in the future, and in preparing our boys and girls for their future careers. The use of machinery on the farm is progressing at a rapid rate. The farm-worker of the future will be a mechanic as well as a farmer, and to this end we shall direct our work in the engineering workroom.

The possession of a tractor will enable our pupils to obtain a working knowledge of the internal combustion engine and the maintenance of similar machinery used on the farm. Though primarily the main aim will be to provide a contact with the farm, I am confident that this year in the engineering workshop for the 14-15 age group will be a valuable asset to our boys in obtaining suitable employment in many other industries in addition to work on the farm.

We aim to give a three years' course in dairying to our senior girls; and this, I feel sure, will provide a splendid training for them in general hygiene as well as in the particular technique of butter and cheese making. The production and handling of pure clean milk, and the need for a greater knowledge in the value of clean milk as an essential food justifies, I think, this innovation in an elementary school.

The provision of a canteen kitchen, hall gymnasium, and adequate changing rooms should make our school a self-contained unit, where happiness will be the keynote and where our country children will have an equal opportunity with the town child of being able to enjoy these facilities which have been long denied to our rural schools.

What I am doing

W. J. Pryke

Blundeston Voluntary School,
nr. Lowestoft, Suffolk

THE towns, with their glamour of amusement and artificial entertainment, their bright shops and lively streets, provide an environment which reacts on the intelligence and power of expression of the child, apart from the teaching he receives in the school. This, however, is to a great extent superficial, in striking contrast to the wonderful happenings and greater variety of interests to be found in the countryside by those who have been trained to observe and interpret them. Our aim, therefore, in a rural school, may well be the interpretation of the countryside in terms of the curriculum; and if we in rural schools have the courage and initiative to put our ideas into practice, then I am convinced that we shall do a great deal to make education a real element in the progress of the countryside.

I have a school in a rural district in which farming and market gardening are the chief occupations. The town of Lowestoft is four and Great Yarmouth is eight miles away. A few years ago my school was completely rebuilt, and now consists of four light and well-ventilated classrooms connected by an enclosed corridor, and is situated in about three acres of land comprising garden and playing field. Reorganization so far has not come to the area, although I have two contributory schools, and my school is a full standard one. I am responsible for the instruction of the older children, and following a recent change, I have a staff of two women and one man to assist with the other three classes. All three are keen and efficient teachers, without whose wholehearted co-operation and team work what has been achieved at the school would have been impossible. So far we have no special domestic subjects or handicraft room or centre.

As my school was built as a tribute to the memory of Charles Dickens, whose great work, *David Copperfield*, is so closely associated with the parish (the village is the 'Blunderstone' of

Charles Dickens), I divided it into four Houses, naming them after some of the best-known characters taken from the book, viz., Copperfield, Barkis, Peggotty, and Trotwood. Captains and vice-captains were elected to lead the houses. The memory of Dickens' characters is further perpetuated by the bestowal of honours on a boy or girl who, by popular vote, are adjudged worthy as regards character and virtue of becoming 'David Copperfield' and 'Peggotty'. All this has tended to foster a wholesome school pride in the minds of the scholars and has raised the tone of the school immensely. It is worthy of note, too, that when the film, *David Copperfield*, was made, in the scenes 'shot' at Blundeston by Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer, to give an authentic atmosphere to the scenes, Blundeston school children, together with the rector and friends staying at the parsonage, were dressed in costumes of the period, 'made up', and photographed in the churchyard.

Shortly after my appointment in 1934 we laid out the school garden, which we wished to be beautiful as well as useful. We made a sunken garden and rockery with a sundial in the centre, we constructed rustic arches and pergolas, planted trees, shrubs, flowers, and vegetables, and boys and girls alike shared in this communal effort and now participate in the work and instruction. The traditional textbook in arithmetic was discarded in the Senior School, and real life problems, real figures and situations which actually cropped up took its place. So far so good. It is with recent developments in my school that I now propose to deal. Many of my boys on leaving school were attracted to the town only a few miles distant, and many entered 'blind alley' occupations there. I asked myself why, and I had to confess that much of this was due to their ignorance of the treasures of the countryside.

I started a scheme with my Seniors to explore

our neighbourhood, a survey of the village in which we lived. Groups were soon busy exploring the historical, geographical, biological and scientific resources of their neighbourhood in relationship to the outside world. The material collected went into special diaries, and the work is still in progress in and out of school. The children were learning to know their own place well, to love it, and to understand and appreciate other places and problems as well. It taught me to realize that I could use nothing better than the material on my own doorstep, as it were, in all branches of education in school. Just over a year ago the Lothingland Young Farmers Club came into existence with its headquarters at my school, and I became its first leader. Prominent farmers in the locality were sympathetic and interested and soon we had formed a strong advisory committee of experts representative of all branches of rural industry. The Club provides a basis for progressive rural education and links together children with kindred interests in educational activities and social recreation. The keeping of appropriate records and accounts, and careful entries as to feeding and general management of stock are in themselves valuable, but membership also creates a sense of individual responsibility and teaches the value of co-operation. Real life problems crop up and real life apparatus is used, and it is easy to relate school work with the activities of the world of livelihood outside.

Desiring to amplify this work, I approached local farmers and members of our Club Advisory Committee, with the result that organized visits to farms and market gardens were arranged, and have proved of great value.

Visits are always preceded by discussion in school, and teacher and scholars prepare a questionnaire dealing with the operations or stock to be studied. The children interrogate the farmer or farm worker, and consult the teacher, while a comprehensive library is at the disposal of the class. The aim of the questionnaire is to ensure that essential points are not omitted, but no attempt is made to check the child's initiative, rather the reverse, as I find that the children, who work in groups, often display a special interest in one particular phase of farm work and seek further information

about it. Brief notes are taken during the visit, and by discussion in school afterwards, information is pooled and compositions, plans, graphs, etc., follow. In this manner the English is not artificial, but fresh and original and straight from the child's mind.

All sorts of interests are being developed as a result of our farm visits, while the school gardens and local survey give point and life to such activities as craftwork, botany, arithmetic, geography, and history. We are developing senior education without destroying its rural character, and already I find that less children are being attracted to urban employment. But I did not think that occasional visits to farms fully served the needs of my scholars, as they gave but a scanty insight into farming methods. I therefore got in touch with a farmer whose farm was situated quite close to the school, and after a long discussion in which I found him sympathetic with my aims and eager to collaborate, he agreed to adopt my school and to supply it with as much information as possible. This would give the child a continuous interest in one farm and also prove a means of supplying a rural type of material for other school lessons. The scheme is at present in progress with the older children. We receive information concerning stock movement, calving, lambing, etc., milk recording, dates and particulars of operations in progress on the farm, and some of the business transactions. The children are making plans of the farm, and entering the names and sizes of the fields, while other maps show areas under each crop by use of water colours. The scholars keep diaries in which they not only collect and group information supplied by the farmer, but record their own observations and comparisons with other farms, so that at the end of the year we hope to have a comprehensive and complete account of work and change on the farm, and sufficient data to acquire a general knowledge of farming methods and the scientific principles involved. Common weeds and their control, steps taken to effect soil improvements, crops and rotation, biological and hygienic principles involved in the care of livestock and pasteurization, etc., of milk are but a few of the topics which give real life to the rural science lesson. Essays are written on our seasonal visits, and

we hope that the summer and autumn visits when haymaking and harvesting are in progress, may incorporate an occasional picnic to relieve the formal atmosphere and at the same time teach the children care as regards standing crops and litter. We find that most subjects in the school can draw on the farm diary for material and no subject can be said to be in a 'water-tight' compartment. For instance, arithmetic, history, and geography are always cropping up in the science lessons, while all these subjects provide a wealth of material for composition and language study.

In the infant school the child's natural enthusiasm for living things is used by the teacher as a basis for imparting knowledge. The subject of the daily English lesson is provided by the children's observations, *e.g.* seasonal work on the farms and market gardens through the subject of 'My Father's Work'. Plays are acted dealing with animals, birds, and flowers. Counting and weighing is done with chestnuts, acorns, seeds, nuts, etc. Even in physical training colour is brought into the lessons by introducing impromptu exercises such as 'Mowing with a Scythe', 'Seed Throwing', etc. The Juniors are trained to observe and recognize trees, flowers, animals, birds, insects, etc. Aquaria are constructed and maintained by the children, actual visits to the marshes providing the specimens. In the study of birds each child adopts a nest, noting materials used in construction, number of eggs, date of

hatching, first feathers, etc., and they are encouraged to recognize birds by their songs. Throughout the school we find the wireless programmes of great value to us.

We have an Evening Institute in its fifth year, which serves the area, and in it we are endeavouring to develop a real human education based on leisure activities and cultural education of a type of far greater value than the rigid uninteresting evening classes of olden days. Adult classes in physical training, craftwork, dramatics, agriculture, horticulture, first aid, folk dancing, English, mathematics and book-keeping, and wireless discussion groups have been remarkably successful, while the Young Farmers' Club holds special classes and debates with neighbouring clubs. A Debating Society, an Amateur Dramatic Society, and a Social and Sports Club are attached to the Institute, and their functions are a sample of what is being done to make our school the centre of physical and mental culture and recreation for children and adults out of school hours. Thus we are attempting to train the child to see the life of the countryside with a true sense of value and perspective. Finally, I would like to emphasize that our aim is not merely to produce landworkers, but to do all in our power to open the children's eyes to the beauty and richness of their environment and to give them a real understanding of the scientific and practical realities of rural life.

Seven Years of Hadowism

F. V. Hawkey, Esq.

Pretoria Senior School, West Ham,
London

IT is now some twelve years since the Hadow Committee Report was issued and the reorganization of the Primary School Educational System consequent upon it was commenced. To the layman the picture presented by the report was of the children of school age proceeding from the Nursery and Infant School stage, through the Junior School, to the Senior or Modern School in an orderly progression. Like most pictures, a good deal

of its attractiveness disappeared upon a closer scrutiny of its details. It was based upon the assumption that the school leaving age would be raised to fifteen and afterwards sixteen years. The basic principles underlying its recommendations were (1) a classification by age, dividing the school life of the child into three stages, Nursery and Infant to seven plus years, Junior to eleven plus years, and Senior to fourteen plus or such age as might be sub-

sequently determined. Inside this classification there was to be a further subdivision of the children into streams according to their ability and attainments.

(2) Specialist teaching, by teachers holding special qualifications in the subjects for which they were to be responsible, which should have a definitely practical bias. It was contended that, as the place examinations would have resulted in the entrance of those children of the 'academic' type who would benefit from a Secondary School education into the school appropriate to them, a further type of school was necessary. The Senior or Modern School was expected to fulfil this particular need.

The school which is the subject of this article was built with a view to reorganization under the terms of the Hadow Report, and opened in August, 1932. The Local Authority had been reorganizing its area piecemeal, and some experience had been gained in the process as this was the third division to be undertaken. The building conformed reasonably to the requirements of the Hadow Scheme. It possessed accommodation for twelve classes, with extra rooms for science, craft work, and wood and metal work combined, though it was not so elaborate as some of the newer buildings in which Local Authorities appear to have entered into a campaign of 'beggar your neighbour' with regard to the provision of amenities.

In order to fill the school, children were drawn from neighbouring schools in three batches of equal numbers, the respective age groups being eleven plus years, twelve plus years, and thirteen plus years. This prevented an immediate attempt to implement Hadow except in the youngest group, but it provided the staff with a valuable year in which to experiment and to examine the possibilities of the school, having regard to its amenities, the type of child attending it, and the particular needs of the children. As time went on, many long discussions took place at staff meetings with regard to the practical bias which it was desirable to introduce into the school curriculum. The idea of the multilateral school began to evolve. The possibility of introducing various sides to the school work was examined. Could there be a technical, a commercial, a

scientific, and an art side developed which would enable the pupils to follow their particular bent? Apart from the fact that the existing facilities rendered this difficult, experience began to turn our opinion against any such clear cut division of the school activities. Our doubts hardened later into the definite conviction that such an organization of the school would serve little useful purpose. We came to the conclusion that generally speaking, even at the age of fourteen plus years, the children were too young in most cases for any reliable assessment of their potentialities in these directions to be made. The brightest boys showed aptitudes in all directions, the backward and dull ones showed little definite aptitude in any. To provide a distinct technical or commercial or other training would be a waste of money and effort, and would necessarily savour of a vocational bias utterly at variance with the real purpose of the Senior School. Whatever might be the case in other districts where circumstances and environment might operate differently, in the neighbourhood of this particular school the multilateral principle could not function efficiently. With the practical bias still occupying our minds, we next considered the problem of classification.

A strict classification by age has few if any advocates amongst teachers of experience. Its evils might be partly counter-balanced, however, by the sub-classification into 'streams' within the various age-groups. This was carried out in accordance with the reports from previous schools and the results of an intelligence test and a formal examination in the three 'R's'. It was subsequently modified slightly after a term in which the teachers had an opportunity to study the individual children. Broadly speaking, this divided the scholars into four streams, A, B, C, D, in a descending scale of 'intelligence' assessed as above. The syllabus varied for the two latter streams as it was felt that the children placed in these groups required a different approach to learning. It soon became apparent that such a rigid classification was unsatisfactory. The children in the C and D divisions early acquired that feeling of inferiority which militates against all progress. It was not the nomenclature which gave rise to this, for the classes were numbered

serially from 1 to 12 and lettered with the initials of the form masters. It was the fact that children of dull mentality were grouped together which produced apathy, lack of standard, and a general feeling that not so much was expected of them as from the rest of the school. The low standard of attainment was not in our view so serious as the low standard of *effort* which characterized these particular classes. We thus found that a strict classification of this type was likely to deprive the children who most needed them of the advantages of the new and increased facilities of the Senior Schools.

It was decided, therefore, to revise the system of classification. Age and ability must necessarily exercise a considerable influence in placing the scholars approximately, but other important factors require consideration. Incompatibility between teacher and child is of more frequent occurrence than is generally supposed, and although a teacher will naturally not allow this to be apparent, yet it will most seriously retard the progress of the child. Abnormal development, while it may not greatly affect the mental attainment of a child, will frequently result in unhappiness for him, owing to the fact that he is placed in close association with others who are not physically his equals. Finally, home circumstances are an exceedingly potent influence in the success or failure of a child during his school life. It therefore appeared that in addition to the age and attainment factors, consideration must be given to temperament, physique, and home-background when deciding which was to be the appropriate class for the child. This classification tends to destroy that homogeneity which is implicit in the Hadow scheme. It may even lower the standard of attainment reached by a few pupils, though this is doubtful because given the freer atmosphere of the Senior School, the bright child will go ahead in spite of such handicaps as the presence of others less bright may entail. Any such loss, should it occur, is more than counterbalanced by the general gain, however. In effect it will probably result in a reversion to the group system within each form—a system not new but one which was used frequently in the days before reorganization, with a considerable

measure of success. With the smaller classes, better equipment, and generally increased facilities of the new schools it should be possible to introduce it with even more gratifying results, in view of the fact that we are not faced with the difficulties of the older schools where space was limited and numbers unwieldy.

The other basic principle underlying the recommendations of the Hadow Report was concerned with specialization and the specialist teacher. If one may judge from much that was said and written regarding this it would appear that its main advantage was held to be a higher standard of knowledge which would result from it. The tendency at first was to rather over-emphasize the value of the subject and its content. Specialist teachers were to be appointed because of their more highly specialized knowledge in the subjects for which they were to be responsible. It is easy to see that this trend of thought might prove highly inimical to the main purpose of the education carried out in a Senior School. The more obsessed a teacher is with his own particular subject, the more likely he is to strike out a line for himself independently and without any regard for the other activities of the school. Properly guided enthusiasm in the teaching of a particular subject is of immense value, but without a measure of control and co-ordination, it may be a mere intrusion into the school life, of little value ultimately to the scholars. We deprecated the formulation of such elaborate 'three' and 'four' year courses as were published at the inception of the Hadow Scheme, which appeared to place a premium on mere knowledge. Such courses seemed to be in danger of becoming very formal, and of being pursued with the idea of imparting information rather than developing outlook and intelligence. The syllabuses which were prepared ranged over the period of the school life of the children, but were on the broadest possible lines, capable of the most elastic application, and constituting not so much a high degree of special knowledge as a specialized approach to the educational needs of the pupil. The work was of a practical nature and hinged on affairs and institutions with which the scholars came into touch and were familiar.

The practical bias of the school work finds

expression chiefly in the workshop devoted to wood and metal work, and the practical room where every kind of practical activity is indulged. The names Handicraft Centre and Craft Room have been deliberately abandoned as there is no attempt to teach any particular craft *per se* in either of the rooms. After exercises designed to teach the pupils the use and care of tools, and develop ability to interpret written instructions into practical expression (an extremely valuable aid to the teaching of English) the boys are allowed to follow their own inclinations, receiving the minimum of suggestion and guidance from the instructors, who, however, are always directing their activities in such a way that they co-ordinate with the rest of the school work. The Practical Room is a place of occupations, but useful occupations, which are brought within the ambit of the various subjects of the curriculum, co-ordinated with them and generally designed and directed to produce the educated hand. It is in this room that we have found the cure for many difficult boys. Owing to the range of activity within it, such boys have invariably found something to stimulate their interest. Once interest is aroused, it can be extended to

the work in other rooms and the difficult boy, as such, generally ceases to exist.

The formation of an Old Boys' Association completes the tale of development up to date. There have been established in connection with this classes for physical fitness, workshop practice, and for extending the work of the practical room. Not the least useful feature of these is the frequent breaking up into groups where informal debates on topical subjects are carried on. Only those who have attempted work among the adolescents of the present day can realize how much valuable social work can be done in these circumstances. Athletics and dramatic work have not been stressed here, but they too form a tremendously valuable part of the school life.

The school is not multilateral in the sense that it provides facilities for training in a number of types of work. It is multilateral in a very real sense, in its appeal to many types of mind, its creation of many kinds of interest, and its endeavour to develop an adaptability which will enable its children to grapple successfully with the ever-changing environment and circumstances that await them in the world beyond the school walls.

'Respicimus, Prospicimus'

Alex Peterkin

Harris Academy, Dundee

FORTY years ago, when a small and completely scared urchin presented himself for enrolment at a well-known school in the North of Scotland, he was told that he must take the one curriculum available for boys—English, history, mathematics, French, Latin, and Greek. Take it or leave it. Being distinctly 'minor ætatis', I took it.

This year, in my own school, which is a co-educational one with a roll of about 1,100 of ages from five to eighteen, a pupil has a range of nearly twenty subjects to choose from in the later stages of his course—from German or Greek to economics or engineering. There is a nucleus that all must take; the other subjects are chosen, under experienced guidance

according to the bent of the individual, boy or girl. This is not specialization; it is merely suiting the curriculum to the pupil, and not attempting to produce a uniform type, regardless of inclination or ability.

This, I think, is the most important development of the post-war years, this freedom; and there can be little doubt as to its value, especially when one goes over the lists of the careers chosen year by year, by pupils who have completed the full secondary course. The university has ceased—in our case at least—to be the only, or even the main, goal. The Civil Service successfully beckons to an ever-increasing group; some of the professions, such as journalism, banking, and insurance, manage

to reach their quota, but some, *e.g.* chartered accountancy and architecture, are feeling a chill draught these days, possibly because they offer apprentices less than a pittance; and industry—which in Dundee means jute especially—is becoming increasingly alive, in the present fierce competition with Calcutta, to the advantages of securing for its administrative side well-educated boys with brains adapted by a carefully chosen school course to tackling new problems and facing new responsibilities without fluster.

Gradually, too, there has grown up in this district a healthier attitude between school and industry, between 'cloister and market place'. For the old atmosphere of aloofness and indifference—which sometimes came perilously near to hostility—the schools were not by any means blameless, but we can certainly claim to have striven hard for the improvement now evident. It is a routine occurrence now for the secretary or the manager of a firm to come out to school, go over the records with the headmaster, interview the applicants in a room set aside for the purpose—in surroundings familiar to the boys—and then discuss them again with me, with all the relative data immediately accessible. This year we could place in suitable employment at least twice as many pupils as are available—and the number available is large. Periodically we invite business men to address us on what industry expects of the school, but we also accept invitations to tell the Business Club and the Rotary Club what the school expects of industry. And we are both the better for these contacts with their 'frank discussions'.

Much more actively, too, has the parent been encouraged to join the team. I must say that my own experience of Parent-Teacher Associations has not been convincing, though I know that in many cases these have been clearly successful. I have found it difficult to get parents interested in education generally; most of them are interested in it only in a particular aspect—where it presents problems that concern their own family. I, therefore, encourage them to call at school and have a talk with the Form teacher and myself about their own children, and it is a lean session that does not see well over 250 parents on our

visitors' list. Some of them, it is true, enter with the light of battle in their eyes; but mostly they come because of a genuine desire to talk things over in an atmosphere that they know to be friendly and helpful. It takes a lot of time, but it is emphatically worth while.

From this better spirit emerged another sound development. Hitherto promotion from a primary to a secondary school had been a rather haphazard and unscientific proceeding, based almost entirely on attainments in English and arithmetic. No consultations took place, and the pupil suddenly found himself struggling frantically in a maelstrom of strange subjects without any clear idea as to how he got there. Frequent misfits were inevitable; the wonder is that there were not far more, when one considers our casual treatment of the child at what is undoubtedly the critical stage of his school career. We ourselves were in a more fortunate position, because we have had for many years in the Harris, a psychological clinic in full working order with a wide range of material. But the numerous 'feeder' schools had no such facilities. Gradually, since the big experiment under the auspices of the International Examination Enquiry Board was launched here an improved technique is being built up. Promotion will be decided by a number of factors, as far as possible, scientifically assessed and co-ordinated. The child has two intelligence tests during his primary course—the earlier an individual, the later a group one; his medical and general records are taken into account, his temperament and home conditions; standardized attainments' tests are given, and the teacher's estimate noted. A formidable and laborious business, you may think. It is, but it is in practice a very real advance on the hopelessly unscientific grounds on which the decision was formerly made. In addition, the parent is consulted, and advice is given on the most suitable course in each individual case. There is still, however, a great deal more to do in the matter of earlier consultation—*before* the pupil has completed his primary course.

As I see it, this psychological measurement side must become increasingly important in schools. It is now a matter of our school

routine, to use the knowledge thus gained in helping to

- (1) make promotions from one class to another ;
- (2) decide on courses for individual pupils ;
- (3) establish special courses for abnormal cases, so that these individuals may advance at their own pace and still keep amongst their contemporaries ;
- (4) advise parents in the choice of career for their children ;
- (5) prevent the vocational misfit by a study of specialized ability, intelligence, and temperament, during the closing stages of the pupil's school life.

The increasing number of young teachers now coming out with a Diploma in Education is making it possible to link up the Clinic work with the whole fabric, to have it keeping step with the ordinary work of the class room.

Like most other schools, we have for many years made use of such teaching aids as the gramophone, epidiastope, and lantern. Like many other Scottish schools, we approached the film and the wireless with considerable caution and some misgiving, probably, I think, because the first demonstrations of these devices were so unsatisfactory, and the more they were pushed in these early days the less convinced we became. But I think that they have long passed their wobbly childhood, and have come to stay, provided they are used only occasionally and then as a help, not as a substitute, and without the introduction of any 'comic business', provided, too, that the B.B.C. would step down and lend a larger ear to the many helpful suggestions offered them by teachers who are sympathetic as well as experienced.

Scottish bairns are naturally diffident and tongue-tied, and we give constant attention to the improvement of their spoken as well as of their written English. Dramatization, not only in the English, but in the History, the Languages, and the Music Departments, is encouraged, class-room debates are a regular feature, the pupils share largely in the running of the school magazine, and they are given complete control of the literary and debating societies, especially when outside lecturers come along. We have prefects, and a prefects' council, with real duties and responsibilities.

I am blessed with a staff of teachers who interpret their duties very generously in the matter of extra-mural activities. They have taken parties of pupils on visits to a coal mine, shipbuilding yard, engineering, jute, paper, ink, gas, linoleum, glass, and electricity works, and to a newspaper office. They arrange frequent excursions—walking, cycle, train, bus, and boat—for those interested in history, geography, biology ; if, for example, an old castle is visited, the teacher writes up the historical background, and the notes are run off on the school duplicator and issued beforehand to the pupils. Our sports' field is in constant use—tennis, cricket, hockey, rugby and association, athletics, all are strenuously pursued, and we have also golf and swimming clubs. It will be observed that we run both codes of football, our argument being that the moment you compel a boy to play rugby when he wants soccer, rugby for that boy ceases to be a game and becomes a task. There is a widespread movement at present to get schools to take up athletics seriously and to train boys to reach certain fixed standards of accomplishment in different events. I am doubtful about the wisdom of this agitation. I tried a similar plan in pre-war years, and I found that, because boys are not naturally keen on pure athletics, the numbers dropped away, and we were left with a few perspiring athletes in the arena and large masses of comatose onlookers round the ropes—onlookers, mind you, who played team games with whole-hearted enthusiastic ferocity.

Amid all this laudable striving after national physical fitness, we in the schools would do well to remember that, though the sound mind in the sound body is the ideal, the latter does not *per se* produce the former.

One development of a disturbing kind has swooped down upon most schools in recent years, and I wish that our national organizations could do something about it. I refer to the growth that has taken place in the commercializing of schools, in the use made of them by enterprising firms for advertisement purposes. We are invited to buy special issues of papers and magazines, to show films advertising a firm's products, to supply audiences for theatrical companies, to run

flag days and appeals, to conduct handwriting and essay and scholarship competitions. As an individual I have no complaint against any one of these, but is their cumulative effect on schools not becoming a very serious matter?

Looking back over a teaching experience of more than thirty years, I think our aims and methods have improved to a striking degree. We in Scotland used to be tremendously proud about the way in which we brought on the humble 'lad o' pairs', but we sometimes conveniently forgot that we were perhaps fairly indifferent to his many brethren who possessed but one talent. That day has gone, for while the brilliant boy or girl still gets every chance, the great company of the average and

under-average are guided and encouraged as we very seldom were in my own school days.

Perhaps in the process we have evolved a tendency to over-organize, to coddle, to make things easy and pleasant, and perhaps our pupils are losing thereby something of the old initiative and backbone. I think that our boys and girls of to-day are as sound at heart, just as capable, and certainly better physically, when compared with their predecessors of forty years ago. And if I sometimes wonder whether they have as much grit and independence, as much willingness to 'scorn delights and live laborious days', I have no doubt that in forty years my successors will be asking this same question.

School Journey to Rouen and Paris¹

Amy Thomas

Bexleyheath Technical School, Kent

WHEN we were organizing our school journey this year it seemed quite natural to us that parents were deterred by the international situation from sending their children abroad, and we were not surprised that our party numbered only nine pupils. When we returned we must confess we were surprised to realize that the 'international situation' still existed.

It is by no means our first school journey to Rouen, but it was the first time that any of this year's party had been to France. Some had corresponded for over a year with pupils of the École Pratique d'Industrie et de Commerce and of the École Primaire Supérieure de Jeunes Filles, and as the train sped from Dieppe to Rouen the excitement increased at the prospect of meeting these friends.

Not only the correspondents were on the platform at Rouen, but many of the correspondents of the girls we had left at school. The *entente cordiale* was renewed before we reached the station buffet, where 'gouter' awaited us. And over cups of tea and coffee

many new friendships began and some old ones were renewed, for we met again several girls who had already spent a few weeks with us at school in Bexleyheath. There were many introductions to be made because our pupils were all invited to spend Sunday with one French family and Monday with another. Although it may be bewildering, after a long journey, to be told that Mireille and her father will call for you at 9 a.m. on Sunday, and that Micheline and her mother will collect you at 10 a.m. Monday, while Suzanne, who has made no arrangements, suddenly decides that you simply must have dinner with her on Thursday, somehow every one seemed extremely happy about everything. Only we had not brought enough English girls—and so we tried to make amends by inviting French girls from time to time to have meals with us.

Naturally the arrangement of these private visits is a delicate business which could never have been done without the co-operation of the Directrices of both the French schools and the untiring and inexpressibly generous help of Mademoiselle Istar, of the École Pratique, and Mademoiselle Cobleny, of the École Supérieure.

¹ May 26th—June 3rd, 1939. Day Technical School for Girls, Bexleyheath, Kent.

During these two days, the girls had an unusually good opportunity of visiting and appreciating the beautiful old town, and there is no doubt that they learn at an early age to appreciate the hospitality of a French family. These contacts have proved so cordial and so lasting that we are encouraged each year to face the possible difficulties. The girls' enthusiastic accounts of these visits are proof that it is more than worth while, while the incredible improvement in their French at the end of even one day is almost enough to discourage one from continuing to teach a language in a class room. When we received our happy pupils back we hoped, rather guiltily, that the French girls had made as much progress in English! We were sure, at least, that all had a more enthusiastic desire to learn each other's language.

We reached the Foyer Ste Marie, ready for the thrill of settling in our temporary home and meeting some more new friends. Before dinner everyone was happily esconced in her own little room, or in her dormitory cubicle—according to her choice. And a very merry party of hungry school girls sat down to their first meal in France. The girls had expected the food to be good, for the cuisine of the Foyer Ste Marie has an excellent reputation in Bexleyheath. They had hardly expected it to be as good as it was. Perhaps French tastes are acquired automatically if one talks French all the time! At all events there were no insular and awkward likes and dislikes, and dinner was scarcely over when one of the more enterprising girls found her way to the kitchen to tell the nun-cook how much her efforts were appreciated. Before many days were over they had discovered that a discussion on culinary and gastronomic questions with the Soeur Supérieure would always bring in its train an adequate supply of snails and artichokes, asparagus and strawberries.

It was a great joy on Saturday morning to go and see our friends at work in the École Pratique. Madame la Directrice most graciously allowed us to see everything that could interest technical school girls, and always we were impressed by the excellent work. The typewriting seemed particularly good, but we stood speechless in admiration before the needlework. If we had not seen the girls doing

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it we should have found it difficult to believe that it was the work of school girls. We even begged some specimens to take home to inspire our own needlework pupils. And we nearly stole the geography exercise books. Our girls insisted on taking part in an English lesson and were soon busy giving pronunciation lessons to small groups of French girls who had probably never worked quite so hard at English as they did that day. The morning was over all too soon—but the afternoon was even more alluring. The third year pupils had invited us to a party from 3 till 7.

We met again in the courtyard. In the Salle de Récréations the buffet table, enchantingly decorated and laden with good things made by the cookery pupils, soon became the centre of attraction. After much spontaneous merry making the entertainment began. It was delightfully informal—an item by French girls followed by one by English girls. And when a song happened to be known to both groups it rapidly became a mutual item. Then there were pauses when they taught each other the first verse or the chorus of a song. Before we said good-bye all the French girls could dance the Lambeth Walk and the Chestnut Tree. And they very soon learned Sir Roger and Auld Lang Syne. Our interpretation of the Marseillaise was the more cordial because the President had given a holiday to French schools to celebrate his re-election, and for that reason we were able to arrange a whole day picnic by motor coach to La Bouille—a delightful village on the banks of the Seine. So on Tuesday morning we set off with our friends of the École Pratique to enjoy together the delights of a summer day in the picturesque

countryside of Normandy. On our return we had to hurry through dinner in order to be ready for the fête to which the little girls from the Convent School had invited us. Another Franco-English programme. The French children presented a charming mime to the 'In a Persian Market' music, and then a delightful little Snow White play, bringing in all the Snow White film songs. Bedtime came far too soon that night, but we knew that the 7 a.m. train for Paris would not wait for us.

By 9 a.m. we were on our way from S. Lazare to see what we could of Paris in one day, including moments spent in admiration before the Winged Victory, the Venus of Milo, Mona Lisa, and La Belle Fermière at the Louvre. After having spent a very busy day we arrived back in Rouen in time for dinner.

Thursday was 'la grasse matinée'. The girls were scarcely ready when their French friends called to accompany them on shopping expeditions in the town. There were more visits to French families and we had several French guests that day. After lunch we went by motor coach to Clères, a delightful zoological park, this time with our friends of the École Supérieure.

Friday morning found the early birds of the party in the market before eight o'clock, and by nine we had all assembled with our friends of the École Supérieure, to pay an official visit to the Town Hall at the Mayor's invitation. It was exciting to go into the Mayor's parlour, the Council Chamber, and the Marriage

Chamber, and we were all impressed by the beauty of the staircases and imposing corridors. Perhaps we were a little overcome at the grandeur of the Salle des Fêtes when we learned that it was here that we were to have our concert with the École Supérieure that afternoon.

So after lunch we met again—nine 'petites Anglaises' and some two hundred French girls. We had no illusions about our singing when we had heard the first song of the École Supérieure. But the delightful friendliness of the whole affair made our programme reach heights that it had never known before. Tea at the new Piscine at the invitation of Madame la Directrice brought our happy meeting to a close. The sight of the happy friendly groups of girls so thoroughly enjoying everything made us quite sure that such a school journey is eminently worth while.

One more fête and our 'voyage merveilleux' was over. All the friendliness that had been shown to us at the Foyer throughout the week culminated in one grand finale. Friends from the town and friends from the Foyer all joined in the jolliest party imaginable.

On Friday a little French girl had recited 'Si toutes les filles du monde voulaient se donner la main' and I think Paul Fort would have been as happy as we were if he had seen the enthusiastic crowds of our French friends who assembled at the station and came down to the train to wish us Bon Voyage and Bon Retour.

Teaching General Science to Small Children¹

Mario Montessori and Phœbe Child

IT is usually considered that certain studies should not be started when children are small, but should be put off till they are twelve to fourteen years old. We consider rather that each subject has many aspects which can be presented at different ages. At

fourteen the children are interested in knowledge and abstract thought rather than in the assimilation of facts that must be acquired before the deeper knowledge is realized.

Therefore at this age they are obliged to do work which should have been mastered at an earlier stage, and is no longer adapted to them ;

¹ From experiments made under the direction of Dr. Montessori.

They do not work with energy and enthusiasm and are easily fatigued. This assimilation should begin for all subjects in the sensorial age (2-3 years) and when the memory is most capable of retaining facts (4-8 years). Thus the child is well prepared for later study, and beyond this, if he has been satisfied in these periods, his whole intelligence is better developed.

We have found that we can give little children what used to be considered very advanced matters, always provided that it be given in such a way that activity forms part of learning, always the mind and hand working together.

All the items of culture must be given, history, geography, and the sciences at an early age in the form adapted to the phase of development. We propose to outline in this article some of the results of work that has been done in presenting biology to the children through a careful analysis of the subject and utilizing and satisfying the sensitive periods of the child's development.

We have found that children of $2\frac{1}{2}$ and 3 years can begin to acquire the elements of biology. This has been demonstrated by the children as if by accident. It is impossible to relate, step by step, how it came about, but it has been partially due to the fact that we were attempting to teach the older children of a school where the children of various ages had the opportunity to see each other work. We found that when we presented the primary facts of morphology and nomenclature of botany to the older children they seemed uninterested, whereas the little ones were enthusiastic to receive all the, to us, tiresome names and to notice all the tiny details; as, for instance, the very minute types of differences in the margins of leaves which all have very definite names. There is, when you consider it, nothing very surprising in this. The little children were at a period which is definitely sensitive for the acquisition of language, words have a great fascination to them, and beyond that they were comparative new-comers into the world, they were still seeing all the details of the world for the first time; whereas the older children had lost their great power to acquire language and had seen all the details in a vague way for many years.

When the experiment was started, following

the usual custom, we imagined that it was best to teach children about these details of the leaves at a time when the leaves were in evidence in the world. The lessons awoke a great intensity of observation on the part of the children, they noticed everything that we had pointed out and many other details of plant and animal life. So much so that they saw as it were too much! They became confused, there was so much that they wanted to know about, they could not concentrate on anything for long as their attention was called to another thing. Therefore, when we worked with another set of children we started in the winter, they studied, as it were, and realized the fundamental order; then when spring came they could fit their observations into a well-ordered mind. They observed even more minutely because they understood what they were looking at.

There is another fact in this early teaching of the little children that may at first seem to you entirely wrong. It is that we isolate the one fact that we wish to teach. For instance, if you wish to teach the form of leaves, you can easily find in nature the leaves to demonstrate it; but these leaves also display differences in colour, texture, size. This presents a difficulty for the children. We showed the children leaves that were lanceolate and cordate, giving them the names; but the child was struck by the fact that one leaf was smooth, the other slightly hairy. The form must be isolated in order to stress it; every other characteristic must be the same, otherwise these special differences of form will not stand out. How can such leaves be found in nature? They can't; therefore we made representations of the leaves, in wood or on cardboard, where every characteristic but the one we were demonstrating was the same. From this ordered basis the children immediately applied their knowledge to the environment, picking out those leaves that were cordate, lanceolate, etc.

In this way, we found that we could present to these children all the details of quite advanced morphology, provided that we analysed the subject, isolating each detail and presenting only one detail at a time. But in doing this we naturally had to follow the phases of development of children. Wherever possible the facts

were first presented in a form which would satisfy the senso-motorial phase of development. The forms of leaves and flowers were presented as wooden insets in different coloured frames. The children of two and three years simply took out the insets and replaced them, judging the form by their eye or assisted by the form as experienced by their fingers while 'touching' round the inset, then the frame. When they knew and could distinguish the forms, the moment had come to give the name. Later, when the children were coming to reading, the written name was given for this form which they could already recognize. So matters progressed, the whole success depending on the fact that the child was active in an orderly purposeful fashion; first moving the insets, then having cards with the picture depicted and a movable slip with the name written on it. When the children read fluently, little booklets were prepared in which all the facts they already knew were clearly set out, these they read, made notes from them or reproduced their own.

Whilst they were learning to read, we gave them the names of the flowers. We presented them in a form that was an indirect preparation for classification, for instance, we made packets of cards with flowers of the Rosaceæ; there were separate cards with the flowers and little slips with the names. These flowers, we explained, were put together because they were all similar.

Thus for the eight, nine, and ten year old children it was not a very big step to arrive at classification, to group together those flowers which had leaves with parallel or reticulate veins; those that had inferior ovaries apart from those with superior ovaries. They could do that with the flowers that they could see. Beyond this it was interesting to see that when they had worked in this orderly way with the flowers they had seen, they could easily imagine those they had never seen and were never likely to see. The orderly reality that they had worked with was a stepping stone to imagine all the further millions as yet unseen.

The study need in no way be limited to that of flowers. The morphology, etc., of the various types of animals lends itself to the same type of analysis and has been worked out, but it is impossible to illustrate it here.

It was through the work with fresh-water aquaria that we realized the type of work most suited to the eight-ten year olds, physiology. These children often went to the rivers and ponds to study and collect specimens. At first it was largely a matter of collecting, the joy of catching and possessing. Slowly this abated. The children came to realize through experiences, bitter for the fish, the necessary conditions for the continuation of life for the different organisms. They understood the cycle of oxygen through plant and animal life in the water, and so on.

Parallel with this, when the interest in the methods of feeding, etc., was aroused, they studied plant nutrition. We set up experiments to show the effect of one element alone, water, air, light, or each of the necessary minerals. To demonstrate the necessity of water we had three similar pots with similar seeds, one was to be watered a lot, one a little, one not at all. The child in charge arranged precisely how much and when each was to be watered. And it was wonderful to note how they were impressed by the fact that water was necessary. After a few days the little boy in charge kept coming to us and remarking that he believed that the plant without water would not be able to grow, and that the one that was having so much was not doing very well. Finally he was certain that the plant without water would not grow. Then what happened? The plant must be given water, every attempt must be made to save its life. It was the same with experiments with the mineral salts. The pots were set up, each had one element lacking. The children watched and recorded. When they knew for certain that one plant would not grow under the conditions we had imposed upon it, it must be given the necessary help to recover.

Enthusiasm and intense observation was aroused by the fact that the children were discovering for themselves the laws of growth by following the precise experiments used in the universities, but they were not proving the results that they had already read in a textbook. It was all new and intensely mysterious, it seemed that they must have had feelings similar to those experienced by the discoverers of the laws of life.

We were also impressed by the fact that they tried to save any life immediately they knew how to ; for while we were learning how to keep the aquaria well balanced there had been great loss of life and we had wondered if it might make them a little callous or cruel, but this was not the case.

And now what is left for the older children ? The study of life itself. Up to now the children have acquired the vocabulary, a sure knowledge

of some of the fundamental mechanism, an accurate observation, a penetrating interest, and a sense of the profound balance that holds all life in a stable equilibrium. They must enter into deeper study and research in particular fields, carry out experiments that need patience, time, and careful observation, delve below the surface into the unseen structure of the organisms : in fact follow all the recent research in this fascinating branch of science.

An English Teacher's Credo

Graham Cherry

**Assistant Master, Westminster City School.
Author of 'The Mind's Eye'**

IF, in this article, I suggest perhaps too much of what ought to be and not enough of what is, it is because, believing in the teaching of English, I am none the less dissatisfied, and feel that to say what I am and what I am doing is likely to be less useful than to say what I should like to be and do. When I speak of the English teacher, therefore, I mean the more or less ideal teacher, of either sex and in any kind of school.

I assume that there is agreement in defining the aims of English teaching as the endeavour to train pupils to think, speak, write, and read well in English. Beyond this I would not dare to dogmatize ; and, indeed, the first point in my conception of the English teacher is that he should be continually returning to first principles, and arguing with himself and others just what he is trying to do ; for the simpler the conception and the more definite the aim the more effective the teaching is likely to be.

Secondly, he must be the right person for the job, and should be a main source of 'culture and light' in his school. Obviously he must possess keenness, without which nothing can be done. Some think an English degree indispensable : others that it is better for him to have studied something else, such as history, or even science, and to have 'drifted across' to English. Evidence supports either view : I lean to the second (though I read English myself) ; and in any case always favour the teaching of another subject in addition to English. Whole-time employment in English

teaching, I believe, tends towards literariness and airy vagueness, which are hateful.

Then, I think, it is good for him once in his life to have lost his enthusiasm altogether, to have been disillusioned as to the value and importance of English as a subject ; and to have recovered to a more disciplined, effective, honest attachment.

He ought to have unrestingly vigilant honesty of mind and heart ; to possess some missionary zeal but not too much ; to write frequently, himself, not fearing sometimes to demonstrate his own practice critically to his pupils. He ought to be a freely expressed personality, conscious of no restraint or repression, rapid to communicate feeling, swift in intuition. He should be in continuous, vivid contact with life—by no means an 'average' teacher in this : he is dealing with writers and writing, with interpreters and interpretations of life. He also needs to encourage relentlessly the practical, empirical view of writing and of 'literature'. He should be less of a theorist than a practical man ; up to date in his knowledge of contemporary writing—he is likely to be a bad English teacher if he does not, to a great extent, appreciate the products of the most recent poets, novelists, and playwrights. Literature does not stop at 1900, nor at any other 'date' : it is a current activity that, presumably, will go on long after we are forgotten. Accordingly, his standards must be flexible, adjustable easily to changing manners, yet never relaxing in the requirement of quality.

Grammar, and the other parts of the skeleton,

he will regard in a proper light, neither ignoring it altogether, nor being deterred from imparting a necessary knowledge of formations and usage. He will continually experiment in new ways of enlivening precept, remembering that incidental chat on an etymology or a usage often avails far more than formal lessons on elusive abstractions. Believing that written work is very important, he will, whilst limiting its volume, rigidly supervise and assist in its construction: and he should avoid the appointment of common-room consultant on questions of grammar, etc.—this practice leading to the clinical view of English.

His mind should never be too made up: if he carries a permanent ballast of, say, thirty per cent. made-up mind, not necessarily constant, he will have enough to carry him steadily along. He will often talk with colleagues and others, to ventilate his notions with dissentient heresy if need be; striving to place his subject in a due ratio to others. He should try not to think it the most important part of the curriculum. It undoubtedly is, but he should remember that there are still numbers of people walking the land who insist that English should not, indeed cannot, be taught; and that if these are wrong, it rests with him and some others to prove it.

Reading: he should read aloud well himself, without self-conscious display or emotional betrayal. These things cannot altogether be avoided; but, in what is called delivery, he will lean to the matter-of-fact rather than to the manner-of-expression. He might know a thing or two about voice-production, but should not be too anxious to impart theory. He should insist, too, on a regular quantity of oral work, particularly with younger pupils; preferring more or less routine, drill work to the more frivolous, entertainment aspects of 'English' lessons. That is to say, he will undertake some debates, discussions, and lecturettes; and according to aptitude some verse-speaking and minor dramatics; but in doing so he will control a natural desire to give pupils what they like all the time. Dramatic renderings, in the form room, are the limit to which any fondness for play-acting should go within the time allotted to English: outside this time, any person with the aptitude

may be expected to help in the production of plays, but it is, I think, a bad tendency for English teachers to feel an obligation on their part to do this work. Very often someone else is more apt and more keen. In any case, it should not be regarded as a normal part of the English syllabus. Lately there have been signs that drama in schools is being overdone, and we need to think out again the whole question.

One of the English teacher's greatest dangers is that he may undertake too much. As it is, he touches on a weird collection of things in the process of teaching English—æsthetics, logic, philosophy, history, philology, and so forth; all of them more or less rightly included in the purview. And while he cannot and will not wish to evade duty in this matter, he should realize the full size of his task and be wary of accepting extra-mural impositions.

A sense of words he should possess and strive to impart, linking it with training in observation and elementary enthusiastic appreciation of the historic property of language. He should feel, too, that stimulation from teacher to pupil and *vice versa* is an inescapable duty, and that the pupils who do not, to begin with, approach writing with any special zest are just the ones likely to respond most hearteningly to these two approaches, having the unliterary honesty of mind and the liveliness of critical outlook which, helped and disciplined, produce writing worth reading. For these as well as for more 'literary' pupils, he will propagate that vividness and accuracy in the performance of function are the chief tests of all writing, including the 'classics', and that the exact use of words is the sign of arduous profitable thought.

I think he ought to take a keen interest in any libraries the school owns, remaining as long as possible discontented with existing facilities. The scope of many form and school libraries is pitifully narrow, and it is his job to widen it as far as he can, being guided—among other things—by first-hand knowledge of his pupils' normal reading habits and requirements.

He should discuss, wisely, this and other topics with his pupils, returning, so far as he can, the confidence they place in him. He will be less definite in doctrine than in practical aim.

He should be in close touch with other adults,

especially with the teacher of 'art'. And he should take serious note of other people's views on 'literature', which will keep him humble.

A due humility and moderate immediate aims, a vivid sense of a never-ending adjustment and a persistent awareness that he may at any moment be proved wrong; these, together with a practical bias and a suspicion of anything 'literary', will prevent him from becoming static in his notions. When, eventually, it becomes clear that his ideas are set and his preferences in taste beginning to be based on sentiment, he should be dismissed for incompetence.

I do not feel that there is much more to say, except perhaps that, as far as English teaching with older pupils means bringing them into contact with first-rate minds through printed words, these minds should be given the opportunity to speak for themselves, hampered

as little as possible by middlemen and critics and notes, but presented in a respectable context of intelligent inquiry. Humility again, coupled with an ability to explain why the books are worth reading.

As far as syllabuses go, the English teacher must never unreservedly subscribe to any *status quo*. Courage and honesty will prevent him from the disgrace of 'taking a book' of which he does not approve for a good reason.

Looking through this long list of *desiderata*, which is yet incomplete, I feel that I have painted a bewilderingly idealistic portrait. Wish-fulfilment has played its part, yet it is far from being a self-portrait. Some of it is challenging, yet I feel much faith in what I have said as a whole, and feel sufficiently humble in my own attitude to be willing to risk controversy, even to welcome triumphant contradiction.

Fellowship News

EUROPEAN CONFERENCE (Sorbonne)

The N.E.F. European Conference, August 3rd to 10th, will be held at the Sorbonne, Paris, under the patronage of the French Minister of Education and the Rector of the University of Paris. The President will be Professor Paul Langevin, of the Collège de France.

We are fortunate in having secured as our place of meeting one of the most famous seats of learning in the world. The history of the Sorbonne goes back to the thirteenth century. It was a great centre of scholastic theology, it played a distinguished part in the revival of learning and in the controversies of the sixteenth and succeeding centuries, it is associated with the name of Richelieu, who reconstructed its buildings and lies buried in its chapel, and, after destruction during the Revolution, it rose to new life which has continued until the present day. When we meet in its buildings we shall find ourselves in one of the most interesting parts of Paris—near Notre Dame and the Panthéon, the beautiful gardens of the Luxembourg, and the narrow streets of the old Quartier Latin, with the cafés of the Boulevard Saint Michel as rendezvous between meetings.

The list of speakers is already taking shape, and among those whom we shall hope to hear are: M. Bertier (Ecole des Roches), Mr. W. B. Curry (Dartington Hall), Dr. Jerome Davis (Yale University), Professor H. Frère (Belgium), M. Freinet (Venice), Dr. G. H. Green (University of Wales), Professor H. R. Hamley (London University), Miss F. Hawtrey (formerly of Avery Hill Training College,

London), M. Jadot (Belgium), M. Georges Lapierre (International Federation of Teachers' Associations), Professor E. Marcault (formerly of the Universities of Pisa and Grenoble), Professor H. Pieron (Collège de France), Mr. F. Redefers (Secretary of the Progressive Education Association, U.S.A.), Mr. Paul Roberts (Chairman of the English Association of New Schools), Mr. Dermot Straker (Institute of Industrial Psychology, London), Dr. H. G. Stead (Chief Education Officer, Chesterfield), Dr. H. Wallon (Collège de France), and Dr. L. Zilliacus (Chairman of the N.E.F.).

The theme of the Conference, as has already been announced, is *Teachers and the Realization of the Democratic Ideal*. The questions which will be discussed are the most fundamental and far-reaching that have ever faced the N.E.F., or, for that matter, that have ever faced education. What we have to do is to make clear to ourselves the rôle that educators must play if the democratic ideal to which we subscribe is to be put effectively into practice.

The Conference is to be a family gathering of the Fellowship and those who are in close contact with it, rather than a series of public meetings. We are looking forward to as thoroughly international a gathering as the circumstances of our day permit. In addition to friends from European countries, we are to have the pleasure of welcoming representatives from the United States, Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, South Africa, and, we hope, of some other countries outside Europe. At the present time of recurring strains and crises between the nations,

**International Headquarters,
29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1**

organizations like ours have to hold fast the international links which were forged in quieter days and to reaffirm the solidarity that binds all who believe in a unity of mankind that overrides the barriers of nationality, race, language, and creed.

Full particulars of the Conference and registration forms may be obtained from the International Secretary, N.E.F., 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

PEACE ACADEMY SUMMER SCHOOL

International Peace Academy Summer School, Chateau de Greng, Lake of Morat, Fribourg, Switzerland, August 1st to 12th. Theme: Towards a New Psychological and Social Outlook. Speakers include: Devere Allen, Marie H. Allen, Kees Boeke, Professor Martin Buber, Han Kuysten, Catherina de Ligt-van Rossem, Dr. Heinrich Meng, Dr. Elisabeth Rotten, Hans Zulliger. Particulars from the British Secretary, R. H. Ward, 10 Abbey Gardens, London, N.W.8.

L'ECOLE D'HUMANITÉ

At Paul Geheeb's new school at the Chateau de Greng, near Morat, Switzerland, the Bircher-Benner dietetics and mode of living will be introduced. The school aims to have dietetic and cookery courses for the pupils.

REFUGEES

Austrian (woman) who has been last three years at Newnham, with B.A. degree and who will go to a school in Ceylon in due course, would be grateful for experience in a progressive school—hospitality in return for service if nothing more substantial can be offered.

Austrian (woman)—with teaching permit and experience in an English school—trained psychologist—junior subjects—also drawing and painting for juniors, biology, elementary French, German, Latin, Greek—seeks post in progressive school.

Will any school give hospitality to a German teacher, wife and little girl until they can go to America? They have an affidavit but must wait some months before getting the visa. It is urgent to get them out of Germany.

Write to Miss Soper, N.E.F. Headquarters, who would also like to hear of domestic posts suitable for refugee teachers.

DANISH EXCHANGE

Danish teacher living in Copenhagen offers fortnight's hospitality to English teacher last fortnight July or first August in exchange for English conversation lessons. Apply Miss C. Soper, N.E.F. Headquarters, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

Book Reviews

Discussion Books. Edited by Richard Wilson and A. J. J. Ratcliffe. (Messrs. Nelson and Sons. Each volume 2/-.)

It has always been a principle of the New Education that the way to living knowledge is the way of active participation in discovery. Wherever this principle has been accepted, the old-fashioned method of *ex cathedra* lessons addressed by the unquestioned teacher to his docile pupils has given place to co-operation in search and discussion.

The clash between these two methods corresponds to the clash which is now taking place in the wider world of politics. Are the men and women who compose a nation to think and make up their own minds, or are a small bunch of leaders to do the thinking and impose their conclusions on the rest? Where democracy is repudiated, the citizen has no call to inform himself or to think. Where democracy is alive, it is the citizen's job to find out the facts on current problems and reach an intelligent opinion for himself. The one type of community requires authoritarian teaching in its schools; the other must follow the method of honest inquiry and intellectual give and take.

The cleavage between the two types of society and the consequent two types of education is to-day clear for all to see. And the presence or absence of free discussion is a distinguishing mark. In Germany

the spiritual downfall since 1933 has been accompanied by an almost complete decay of discussion—and that among a people whose taste for it was as keen as anybody's. Censorship, insulation from the rest of the world and the dead weight of a comprehensive official dogma have deprived Germans of both the opportunity and the material. On the other hand, in countries where some measure of democracy remains, discussion is the order of the day. The growth of group thinking has been one of the few encouraging facts of recent years. Organizations of all kinds and sizes have taken more and more to the practice of thrashing out current problems along these lines. Reports from N.E.F. Sections in different lands, for instance, show that members are calling for discussion and co-operative study in preference to large gatherings where one or two orators have the whole field to themselves.

All of us who have taken part in such group thinking know that one difficulty is to find a suitable book on which to base the discussions. A standard authority is apt to be too large for every member of the group to buy, as well as too 'final' for the purpose. Smaller books are apt to be misleading because the author has an axe to grind. What we require is a smallish book written by an expert for the use of average people who want to form an opinion for themselves, not to be told what they should think. It must be boldly informative and

THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF GENERAL SCIENCE

By H. S. SHELTON. 3s. 6d. net.

'Advocates of General Science are urged to read this volume . . .

'Mr. Shelton's suggestions deserve the careful consideration of all concerned with the teaching of science in secondary schools.'—From a review in *A.M.A.*

AN INTRODUCTION TO GEOLOGY

By Professor A. E. TRUEMAN. 4s. net.

'To give an intelligible account of the whole of Geology within the compass of a small school book is a formidable task; nevertheless it has been accomplished with success by Professor Trueman.'—*Geological Magazine*.

Thomas Murby & Co., 1 Fleet Lane, London, E.C.4

clearly written and must at the same time raise the relevant questions and leave loose threads to be followed up.

Messrs. Nelson, realizing that all this means a new type of book, have launched a series expressly written for the use of discussion groups. The books cost 2s. a volume and are good to look at and to handle. Each author has been encouraged to express his own opinions frankly, while no less frankly throwing into relief the controversial issues that arise.

The series now includes over fifty titles. It would obviously be beyond the competence of any reviewer to give an opinion worth reading on each and all of them. Consider a few of the subjects: *The Changing Village*, *Taste in Music*, *Heredity and Environment*, *Human Types*, *The New Sweden*, *Factory Law*, *Drama and Life*, *The American Political Scene*, *Psychology and the Religious Quest*.

After looking into each of the volumes piled on my desk, I can say without hesitation that in the way they are written and planned they answer fully to the requirements of discussion books. Most of them are provided with bibliographies, too, and I notice that references are given to authors who take widely opposite views on controversies of the day. I have also enjoyed myself looking up names and topics with the help of the indexes:

Thus index learning turns no student pale,
Yet holds the eel of science by its tail.

And these further investigations have strengthened my first impressions of the series as a whole and whetted my appetite.

The books are not intended in the first place for children, but some of those I have dipped into should be given a place on the shelves of school libraries, for the use especially of senior children. One or two are suitable for class room use. For instance, *Our Spoken Language*, by Professor Lloyd James; *The Geography Behind History*, by Mr. W. G. East—a fascinating book;—and *The Responsible Citizen*, by Mr. S. H. Cair, which describes the government of Britain, the nature and aims of the various political parties, and even has a chapter on British Foreign Policy. This last book is a great advance on most school books which profess to teach 'Civics': it is

very much more realistic and it raises plenty of the issues of current controversy.

A number of the books will be of real help to teachers as a stimulus and as a source of additional material. I should like to mention particularly *The French Political Scene*, by Miss D. M. Pickles, and *What About India?* by Professor Rushbrook Williams, both of which ought to be in the hands of those who conduct classes on Current Events. *The Material of English History*, by Mr. F. J. Weaver, is an admirable introduction to the sources of our history; pupils who are going in for history scholarships should be directed to it, while history teachers will find it useful to turn to. For those who produce school plays Miss Nora Ratcliff's *Rude Mechanicals* is well worth reading. Its subject is really village drama, but a good deal of what is said can be applied to school theatricals.

One or two books are addressed mainly to teachers. Mr. M. L. Jacks writes on *Physical Education*—by which he means a great deal more than physical training. *The Adult Class*, by Mr. A. J. J. Ratcliff, faces many problems which are common to all kinds of teaching. It is largely a book of tips, but they are good tips, forming what the author calls 'a sort of tabloid discussion training course'. Along with this book should be taken No. 1 of the series, Professor T. H. Pear on *The Maturing Mind*. Its subject is the importance in mental development of learning to discuss. It is written with such charm and liveliness that its 'invitation to be educated' is irresistible.

I have referred to books mainly in so far as they can be used in schools, whether by pupils or teachers. But, of course, this is not the principal purpose of the series. It is addressed in the first place to adults. The world is very large nowadays and its problems very multifarious. But it is the world we have got to live in. And there are two alternatives open to us: either to probe into the faults of our civilization and pull our weight in setting them right, or to abdicate and leave everything in the hands of a few self-styled leaders (who, to tell the truth, are no cleverer than we are and function on a lower moral plane that we would tolerate in private life). If we choose the first alternative, here is help at hand. These books are really interesting, informative, and stimulating, and they are not—like so much that comes our way—propagandist. They set you

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thinking, disagreeing, discussing, and inquiring further. They live up to what one of the editors says of them : they do not grind an axe, they merely turn the grindstone.

Vivian Ogilvie

A Dramatic History of England. By L. Du Garde Peach. (University of London Press Ltd. Price 1/- each.)

These three volumes cover the period 900 to 1901, and divide at 1215 and 1588. They consist of short one-act plays dealing with the outstanding events in each period, simply and clearly presented. The prologue before each scene provide a concise and easily memorized summary of preceding events, and this is perhaps the most admirable part of this pleasant work. The best of these plays, especially the account of De Montfort's Parliament, are of high value, but some fall below the uniform excellence of the blank verse prologues.

The two major criticisms of this work are, that the author has picked out for treatment the highspots of history, and that too often he has put his ideas into the mouths of famous historical characters. Now there are few children who are unable to conjure up some enthusiasm for the most pedantic account of the battle of Hastings, or of the coming of the Armada, and one cannot but regret that the author has not made further use of his gifts to stimulate the interests of children in the more workaday aspects of history, instead of gilding the historical lilies ; second and third forms are far from being bored with Miss Eileen Power's 'Mediæval People', and we could do with more scenes in the manner of 'As the People Lived' in volume one.

The danger of giving famous men speech as well as praise lies in the infinite possibilities for distortion. There is no doubt that these plays do capture the imagination, and one cannot help feeling that it would be better not to allow an impressionable child to form a complete picture of a great man from plays in which, by their every nature, that picture must be limited and largely imaginary.

To leave a clear cut idea of an Anglo-Saxon peasant, or a Norman noble, is admirable, but to grow up with a vivid memory of what Harold or William I said and felt in a form room play is to develop the frame of mind which thinks of Arliss at Waterloo.

Such shortcomings are well-nigh inevitable in work of this kind, however, and may be remedied by the teacher. The great value of these plays, as the author points out in his introduction, is that children not only see historical events actually happen ; they will themselves be making them happen. Children love to be doing something, and these plays will provide a welcome relief from the strain of listening.

J. R. H. Yeoman

Scripture Teaching To-day. M. Vivian Hughes. (S.C.M. Press, 5/-.)

The author of this stimulating book has drawn on her experience as teacher, lecturer, and super-

visor, parent, and inspector of schools to describe modern methods of Scripture teaching among those who are presenting the Bible to their pupils in such a way that it becomes real and living with an important bearing on everyday life and thought. There is no attempt to provide a formal study of Scripture teaching method, but the book gives much practical help in an indirect and vivid way. There is a wealth of information about good work being carried out in the schools, and a few 'cautionary tales' by way of contrast, but the book as a whole illustrates the writer's conviction that 'never before has Christianity been in such a hopeful case. If the schools remain as the "last ditch" for teaching it, there is more vigour and sincerity in the ditch, more real life, than in all the enforced observances of earlier centuries.'

Herself a strong believer in the importance of concentrating on New Testament teaching, the author describes an interesting experiment in a school where one period a week only was allotted to Scripture. Those members of staff responsible for teaching it had sought and obtained the co-operation of their colleagues by introducing into the syllabuses of their own subjects references to the Old Testament for illustrative purposes. The history teacher, for example, in telling of Phoenicia, introduces examples of sailors and traders from the Book of Kings and Ezekiel. The English teacher made a list of examples of narrative in the Old Testament ; allegories ; parables ; epigrams ; varieties of poetry. In such a way not only was a good deal of biblical information imparted, and a habit of 'searching the Scriptures' formed, but a link was made between the religious instruction period and other school subjects which was of the greatest value.

A chapter on how to make a fresh approach to Bible truths which have often lost their appeal from full presentation, makes suggestions concerning literature outside the Bible which may be used to bring home, for example, some of the sayings of Jesus. Illustrations from modern life which may be used by the teacher are also given.

The use and misuse of syllabuses, the case for and against Scripture examinations, the treatment of difficult stories in the Bible and of pupils' questions, dramatic work and other activities, all these topics and many more are treated with a lightness of touch which will attract the reader, but at the same time with an understanding and authority derived from wide experience and profound relief in the importance of Scripture teaching.

A. Sladdin

A Penn'orth of Chips. (Victor Gollancz, 3/6.)

If this book has proved anything it is that we do not know to what extent backwardness is ultimately due to heredity and to what extent to environment, and that we *do* know that improved environment improves the response of the children to the education provided for them and is thus likely to turn out better citizens. And in any case no educationist, by the very nature of his work, ought to tolerate degraded

and shameful condition of living. Dr Burt puts the case with all his humanity and wisdom. '... if from some inherited defect the whole family is as dull as the child himself, none of its members are likely to earn wages high enough to keep that child in reasonable comfort. But that is no reason why we should allow either the child, or for that matter the adult, to suffer in misery. And ill-health and malnutrition most inevitably lower the child's level still further.'

What is being done in the U.S.S.R. in this connection may be of interest to us here. Soviet psychologists hold that while there is no limit to the heights to which intelligence and intellect may rise, there is a definite level—a pass standard—which every normal child may be expected to attain. When it does not attain this level the cause must be sought in the environment. Only children with incurable physiological defects can be classed as backward. And this defect, they argue further, was very probably caused by the environment of its parents or remoter ancestors.

There has not been enough time to judge whether Soviet psychologists are right. Soviet educationists contend that while it is very valuable and imperative to supplement in the school the deficiencies of the home—no lasting good can be effected without a radical change in the environment of the family, and that not by charity.

Beatrice King

(We hope to publish a further review of this book in the Sept.-Oct. issue.—ED.)

BOOKS RECEIVED

Memorandum on the Teaching of Geography. Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools. (Philip & Son, 8/6.)

The Book of Craftsmen, by Marjory Bruce. (Harrap, 2/6.)

Civics, by K. B. Smellie. (Bell, 3/6.)

Senior Practical Geography, by E. J. Orford. (University of London, 2/2.)

Under the Southern Cross. Edited by S. Eden Greville. (Longmans, 1/6, and 2/6.)

English of Your Daily Life, by R. K. and M. I. R. Polkinghorne. (Longmans—Books 1 and 2—1/3 each.)

Living with History, by E. H. Short. (Longmans.)

Sketch of a School, by Cheironax. (Heinemann, 5/-.)

Man the World Over, by Carter and Brentnall. (Blackwell—Book 1, 2/9, Book 2, 2/3.)

The Mind's Eye, by Graham Cherry. (A. & C. Black, 2/3.)

The Price of Leadership, by J. M. Murry. (Student Christian Movement, 5/-.)

Infant School Activities, by E. R. Boyce. (Nisbet & Co., 6/-.)

Hand Weaving To-day, by Ethel Mairé. (Faber & Faber, 5/-.)

Studies in Arithmetic, by Scottish Council for Research in Education. (University of London Press, 5/-.)

The World of Man for Boys and Girls, by H. C. Knapp-Fisher. (Routledge, 7/6.)

Fifty Years of the L.C.C., by S. P. B. Mais. (Cambridge University Press, 2/6, and 4/6.)

POSTS VACANT AND WANTED, etc.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

G. A. LYWARD
H. G. STEAD

Education Now

JOHN MACMURRAY
E. SALTER DAVIES

THE roads of life narrow to points and then widen out again. If it is true that there is no experience for those who will not pass through the eye of the needle ('You can get through provided you go alone and without luggage'), then it is certain that very few educationists set out to make sure that every child is getting experience. And if all alternatives to going through are not just lesser experiences but occasions of disintegration, then we may well come to the conclusion that our own educational system has played some part in producing the present crisis.

Many a schoolmaster coaching (say) a hundred boys to play rugby football must have said, 'A dozen of them can tackle, a few cannot play at all, but there are seventy or so who can do most things except tackle, and that means we have over eighty who get something out of it'. But is rugby football without tackling rugby football? Haven't all but the dozen been helped to deceive themselves?

Ten years of running a community of re-education for maladjusted adolescents, many of them of high intelligence and 'intellectual attainment' and a high degree of physical fitness and co-ordination, has left me unable to suggest less than this in what is no more than immediate response to the editor's request to write briefly about the present situation.

It seems to me vital that we should cease to say quality when we still secretly mean quantity, cease from deluding ourselves into believing that anything is worth calling education that fails the test so frequently. As a nation we say that we are fighting an enemy who is morally incapable of keeping a social contract.

Are we ourselves capable of keeping contracts of a higher order that include the social and, indeed, give it meaning?

For at least the last two decades we have gone on adding to the amount we deliberately plan to teach our boys and girls, visualizing ourselves too frequently as sowers of seed instead of as tillers of soil. What is the good of higher education that does not naturally lead to the highest education? And that it will never do, unless during the years of primary and secondary education each child has been watched and weaned so that he is less and less likely to turn back at the narrowing of roads, but contracts truly. He is rarely so watched and weaned, because teachers (and parents) have not realized the *supreme* importance of weaning in so far as it makes the *supremely* important contractings possible. They blindly consider that addition to the sum total of things remembered or superficially enjoyed is not too bad an alternative. Boys and girls, therefore, keep finding their perfectly legitimate luggage of 'havings and doings' becoming too wide to fit into a narrowing road and turn back with it (and with our blessing) and fail to exchange what must then become merely credit for a continuance of joy in widening awareness. In spite of much that has been written about ways of making this luggage more acceptable and in spite of the addition of social science to the curriculum, the children we have referred to above are not being educated at either new or old types of school. The irony is that all the luggage would each time have turned up inevitably on the right side of the needle's eye. 'Added unto you',

not as justification but as the result of verifiable surrender at the cross in the road.

Neither new school nor old can now afford to neglect its call to see that each boy and girl learns to concentrate. It is not enough to hope, as so many do, that the 'discipline' of the subject of study or its interest will result in 'most of them, more or less, learning to concentrate'. Besides being untrue of the reactions to which these people apply the word concentration, such a statement shows ignorance of true concentration. Each human being, because he is more than an animal, calls out to his teachers, whether he knows it or not, to wean him gradually but surely from the dissipation of his energies so that he can watch a thing or read a word or see a view or sit still with an idea until he steadies and penetrates to what lies behind—for all these are but forms.

As a human being he must come to centre his life in his mind—and how far removed this is from being 'an intellectual' or a certain kind of scientist or logical person! If he does not thus centre his life he is at the mercy of his instincts or his emotions and the wasteful brooding so often mis-called thinking, or science as an escape from personal challenges. A well-trained and well-stocked mind got in the right way, and no other, can, in due course, turn away at will from phenomena and contact another world.

At the best we have most of us so far been content with adding to the intellectual luggage; training memory, even when (if we were moderns) we said and believed we were doing something else; and developing quick response from the apparatus that puts us in touch with the external world. Now our educational task may well be to lead our pupils much more certainly towards a control of the mind that can make them intellectual rather than intellectuals and render possible later awareness of a newer state of being. And we must perform this task as part of the process we appreciated, but so dimly, in our loose talk about self-expression; and as related to the achievements of the old schoolmasters who, for their part, wisely refused to be taken in by those two words. From a purely animal and physical existence to awareness of the senses

and the emotions on to awareness of the mind, and now what? Is it not likely that further development, thanks to mass education, has now ceased to be restricted to the very, very few; development into a sphere where a universal range of contacts becomes possible.

Something is happening, and the war is surely part of that something. Intellect, under analysis, has lost its old position and has had to give way to the conflicting claims of instinct and intuition. It may well be the task of educators to see that intuition shall begin to reign, not by abrogating intellect but by controlling it at the crosses in the road until the energies of the mind, of the emotions, and of the physical nature are discovered as revealers of an inmost self and not merely of psychic or bodily natures.

The war, with its challenges and opportunities to educators, has pushed three words into prominence for me—intuition, concentration, group. If, through concentration, the intuitive life of immediate contacts can come in its own time to its own, then the meaning of the group will be increasingly felt and understood. Those who set down security and a slow nursery school start as vital, and can acknowledge that so very much school work is not schooling (that is, home-making or development of awareness) will appreciate the need for true concentration and will be among the first to suspect that the words, 'we are members one of another' are not merely a picturesque way of saying something about conscious co-operation. Like so many words commonly looked upon as useful for emotional emphasis, these are found to be actually true by the intelligent person, who has gone through the eye of the needle, valuing nothing as of intellectual worth that will not be surrendered as the price of creation.

All this is too brief to say what I have wanted to say. I can only hope that the brevity has at least made my reply usefully provocative.

G. A. Lyward

* * *

VICTORY comes to those who can use their adversities and not submit to dictation by them. Those who have endeavoured to put into practice the principles of what is

generally known as the New Education have found that one of their major obstacles has been the strangle-hold with which custom and tradition have encircled the educational system.

And now, suddenly, the trumpets have blown and the walls have fallen down, and the citadel can be possessed. The position is so open that fear of the entirely unknown may now replace the dead hand of custom as a repressive force.

In such a position *The New Era* has a wonderful opportunity. It has stimulated constructive effort in the past, but much of its energy has had to be used in destructive criticism. Now it can supply a desperate need—that for a clear statement of the principles underlying an education based on the needs of the child and on his nature. Teachers in all countries will be engaged in devising an education which will at one and the same time assist and fortify the child in the present situation, help him to use his adversities and not be conquered by them, and also to bring him as far as possible unscathed to the threshold of his task as a builder of the new order.

The New Era can describe what others are doing, watch for and denounce the appearance of totalitarian ideas and methods in education and, above all, stimulate thought on our problems. In particular, it should give a lead to teachers—not by the publication of teaching ‘tips’, but by a stressing and underlining of the basic principles upon which all our work must be based. It can encourage discussion, the honest reporting of experiments, and develop a feeling of comradeship in the whole profession.

Above all, it can fight for a sane mental atmosphere for the children. There are not wanting signs of evil things abroad amongst us. It is probably correct to say that 90 per cent. of the people of Western Europe do not wish for war. It is true that we fight a form of government and not a people. But already, in the press and in common talk, the distinction is no longer drawn, and ‘the Germans’ is substituted for ‘the Totalitarian form of Government’. The children must be kept free from this or there will be no peace in the future. We have to realise that we fight—*everywhere*—for a form of Government which

will make possible the only wise education of our children. *Now*, when the stress of war has shattered the hold of custom, is the time to construct in accordance with our principles. We have not only to enable the children to *exist* through this period; we have to give them the real bread by which alone they can live, and beyond that we have to fortify and strengthen them for the task of rebuilding the world anew. The task is great and the opportunity rare. *The New Era* can assume a leadership which may have results more far-reaching than can be at present foreseen.

H. G. Stead

✱ ✱ ✱

THE evacuation of school children from the big urban centres to country districts offers a golden opportunity for experimental advance in educational methods. The main danger is that attempts will be made to reorganize, under new conditions, the form of school teaching that the children and their teachers have been accustomed to in the towns. This would be a disaster. Happily, in many cases, it may not be possible. What is needed is to devise schemes of education which will use to the full the advantages of the new conditions in the country. The use of ‘project’ methods with the village as the centre suggests itself as peculiarly suitable to the conditions in which teachers and small groups of children find themselves. The organization of such groups as small communities would solve many of the vexing problems of the good people who have taken them into their homes as well as providing for educational experiments of a kind that many educationists have urged upon us, and many teachers longed for the opportunity to pursue.

And there is no reason why this type of education should not be given in part a practical turn which would make a contribution to the country in the national emergency, with advantage to the children and their training for life. There must be many small tasks which children could undertake in country districts which would at once form part of a sound educational scheme and also contribute to the smooth functioning of social life in country districts under emergency conditions.

I hope that the New Educational Fellowship will be able to play a part in seeing that this opportunity is not lost. The core of the solution would seem to lie in providing the teachers who are responsible for the evacuated children with suggestions of methods which they could apply in the particular conditions in which they find themselves working.

John Macmurray



IT was in 1917, during one of the most critical periods of the World War, that Mr. Fisher introduced his educational proposals which were afterwards embodied in the Education Act of 1918. War brings home even to those who are usually indifferent the vital importance to the nation of education. I believe that the

present catastrophe will have a like result. It is, therefore, the duty of all educationists to set about their work with redoubled energy and devotion. Moreover, the removal of so many thousands of children, with their teachers, to new surroundings offers an unparalleled opportunity to those who share the ideals of the New Education Fellowship. There will be new opportunities for the experiences of a communal life, for the breaking down of artificial barriers between social classes and between the town child and the country child, and for the establishment of direct contacts with nature. The main end of education is to create and develop a sense of the supreme values of life—justice, truth, brotherhood. In the challenge of the present war teachers and children must find a new inspiration.

E. Salter Davies

Current Problems

Gordon Barry

ONE of the duties of the Government of a country during wartime is to ensure the safety of its children as far as possible, and to make adequate arrangements for the continuation of their education.

In pursuance of the first of these objects, arrangements were made for evacuation on a hitherto unprecedented scale. Prior to the outbreak of war many voices urged that evacuation would not be sufficient and that some measure of shelter from air raids should be provided at the schools themselves.

Probably owing to the fact that many considered war extremely unlikely, and even more to the fact that the provision of air-raid shelters would entail considerable expenditure, very little provision was made in this direction. Evacuation was the main scheme to which national faith was pinned. Undoubtedly much care and thought was expended on the arrangements for this exodus and all praise must be given both to administrators and teachers for the arrangements made beforehand and for the manner in which those arrangements were carried out.

General Secretary, National Association of Head Teachers

Now that this great transfer has been completed, and both parents and children are endeavouring to settle down under their new conditions, drawbacks of the evacuation scheme have become abundantly apparent, and it is becoming fairly obvious that the second duty of the Government, namely, the continued education of the children, is not being carried out at all in quite a number of areas and very ineffectively in others.

Difficulties of Hosts, Parents and Teachers

As regards the children in the homes of their foster parents, hundreds of examples testify to the difficulties which are being encountered on every hand. The patriotic enthusiasm of some of these foster parents has been very severely tried by children arriving in a verminous condition, insufficiently provided with boots and clothing, and in a number of cases accompanied by mothers whose main idea of the evacuation seemed to be that they were getting a holiday at the country's expense. Instances could be multiplied where the hosts have provided, out of their own pockets, boots and clothing for the

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unfortunate children. But hospitality has been tried over much when the accompanying parents have left their children to the care of their hosts and have gone off to enjoy the pictures or to participate in the conviviality of the local tavern. Even where parents have not accompanied the children there have been many complaints of visiting parents bringing down numbers of relatives to see the children and of having meals for the day at their country hosts' expense. In the most favourable circumstances the separation of children from their parents is a distinct hardship, and undoubtedly some arrangement should be made for parents and children to see one another; and to enable them to do this cheap facilities for travelling will be necessary.

Teachers themselves, too, have their own personal difficulties. Many literally cannot afford to keep two homes going as their billeting allowance is, of course, quite insufficient to keep them where they are now living. Why is there differentiation between the billeting allowance given to a teacher and that meted out to a civil servant? Many

teachers have had to accept extremely inferior accommodation in seaside towns where wealthy refugees have caused accommodation prices to soar. Even the personal difficulties of married teachers should be taken into account—father in the south of England, mother in the west, and the children scattered throughout the country. What becomes of family life?

Difficulties : Educational

In the schools themselves the double shift system is being worked in some areas; others refuse to have anything to do with it. Undoubtedly, the fine weather which has helped us during September will give way to more inclement conditions, and one pities the adults (teachers, helpers, and hosts) who have to look after numbers of children with insufficient to do and rendered more active and inquisitive by the novelty of their surroundings.

We know that the tutorial system is being tried in certain areas. Teachers will visit the homes, but this again is very obviously an extremely unsatisfactory arrangement for anything like a lengthy period. We know, too, of

places where children have to be accommodated in village halls, where little or no equipment has been provided up to the present, and where the children are sitting on the floor. Many head teachers have their schools scattered over an area ranging from 10 to 50 miles. What possible supervision can they give to the children for whom they are supposed to be responsible, especially now that petrol rationing practically forbids the use of a motor car.

A further complication is the fact that in many areas only a small percentage of the children have been evacuated and Local Education Authorities have not yet made up their minds what to do with those remaining. Some schools have one-third evacuated and two-thirds left in the town.

Local Planning for Education

We are not pointing out these difficulties in any carping spirit, but we must urge that evacuation is to be looked upon as a mere palliative. It was undertaken immediately on the outbreak of war, since the air menace might be upon us at any hour. The efficiency with which it was carried out must not blind us to the deficiencies which have now become apparent when the newness has worn off and

when the first impulse of generous reception of the children has waned. It is now the duty of the Government to ensure that the education of these children comes into the foreground. What steps are proposed to carry on this education? We must not regard the children as being parked out in the country for the duration of the war. The Government is taking a long view in military matters; a similarly long view must also be taken educationally. Wherever possible, shelters either on the school premises or close to it should be provided for the children. Where this is not possible, school camps should be provided in the country.

The problem of the reconsideration of evacuation should be undertaken immediately by both the Government and Local Authorities. It cannot be dealt with by one vast movement as evacuation itself was handled, but must be met by a series of compromises and arrangements which will vary according to the needs of the localities. Hence the primary consideration of the safety of the children should be assured by either shelters or camps, and then education can go on along its more normal lines, replacing the present lack of both system and efficiency.

Education in Peril

Margery Betts

WHEN the evacuation of school children was carried out the Government repeatedly emphasized the vital importance at such a time as this of safeguarding the next generation in every way. It is not only necessary, we were told, to provide for the physical safety of these children, but it is also most necessary to remove them from the atmosphere of nervous tension which is particularly noticeable in large towns, so that their mental health may not be endangered. The Government has insisted that young children must have every care, as Education Authorities, one would think, would not need to be told. But now the idea seems to prevail that the education of the child—every bit as important for his future as is the care of his

nervous condition and closely bound up with it—is a matter of secondary importance, or perhaps even less; that if an emergency occurs education can go to the winds. Educational facilities can be abandoned, or commandeered for other purposes, and in their place anything, or almost anything, will do.

In one particular educational district, a county borough now a neutral area, steady progress had been made throughout the last twenty years. A splendid system of schools, junior and senior, technical and commercial, had been built up in addition to several fine secondary schools. Except for these last, the whole system has been wrecked. Seven schools have been completely closed, two partly. These are now centres for first aid parties or

decontamination squads. Another is to become a recruiting centre, while part of the municipal college is reserved for a food control bureau. The chief officer of the L.E.A. is in charge of the food supply and several members of school staffs are to be engaged in this, at least for a short time. Buildings and equipment are being wasted or used in a most uneconomical way. A well-equipped woodwork room is being used as a dormitory, a domestic science centre as a canteen, although a suitable hall is available not far off. As one result of this, qualifications of specialized teachers are wasted and children lose a valuable part of their training.

Obviously, if several schools are closed there is not room for all the children. They must go where they can be squeezed in. A shift system must be worked in many places, which nearly halves the school day. In other cases children must be crowded into buildings not really large enough to hold them all. Re-organized senior and junior schools are abolished and all-standard schools take their place. Again special qualifications are wasted. The effect of this step as a safety measure is cancelled by the distance which some pupils of the closed schools will now have to travel. At one end of the scale no provision is being made for children under seven years old, while at the other the evening institutes have had their programmes cancelled.

The elementary schools are not all open yet. Provision for the safety of the children is apparently not complete, although in some cases only one or two days' work is needed. It has been needed for some weeks now. Meanwhile, children can go to the pictures or roam about the streets where they are in much greater danger than they would be in school. When an air raid warning sounded in daylight recently, hundreds of them were in open spaces and many walked home instead of taking shelter.

The situation in this area is far from being an isolated case. In one county authority's area (mainly neutral) only 26 out of 60 schools remain for use, as the rest have been taken over for other purposes. In reception areas the influx of so many newcomers has done incalculable damage to existing education, which more thorough planning, perhaps evacuation into communities, could have pre-

vented. At present a shift system is in wide use, which means that the children on the spot suffer heavily, and there is great difficulty in accommodating the visitors in the other half of the day, or there will be when winter comes. In the evacuation areas there seems as yet to be little hope of regular education for those who are compelled to remain behind, through no fault of their own, even if of their parents. It might be that the resumption of education would encourage evacuees to return, but that is not sufficient argument against it. They should be prevented from returning in some other way. But of all the children in the country, those in the danger areas have most need of attention and must not be neglected.

Most of the present state of affairs is unnecessary. Careful advance planning, which has been discussed but not carried out since September, 1939, would have smoothed out most difficulties. But since this has not been done the present period of calm must be utilized. Now is the time for completing arrangements. Later on it may be too late. Individual or group teaching for a short time each day is no substitute for full-time organized schooling, though it may be all that is possible in evacuation areas. Use should be made of the unique opportunities provided by the removal of large numbers of children to a new environment. If ever education was vitally important, it is so now. Many families are broken up and many children are deprived of parental control. Already many are showing the ill effects of their prolonged holiday. And so much will depend on these children in the next few years. We must make our plans now to carry education through the whole length of the war, however long that may be.

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Wood Green, London

ONE of the major problems caused by the Government Evacuation Scheme is the education of children remaining in the evacuation areas. The Government hoped that the proportion of school children evacuated from London and other densely populated areas would be about 80 per cent. The numbers fell far short of this. In one district it was only 10 per cent. and in many others it was less than 50 per cent. Those who have gone are now resuming their education in the schools of the reception areas. There remains the problem of educating the thousands whose parents have kept them at home. Readers may be interested in this account of an experiment which is being made to solve the difficulty.

From a suburban area in North London about 40 per cent. of the children left under the Government scheme. About 10 per cent. have been sent by parents to places in England, Wales, and even Scotland. There remain nearly three thousand children. Most of them live in working-class homes with limited accommodation, and as the weeks passed the need for resuming their education became more pressing.

Planning a Tutorial System

The Director of Education called together the few teachers who had remained and a Head Teacher who had been recalled from a reception area to develop a scheme of individual instruction. Plans were discussed for a tutorial system to give the children individual supervision. Notices were posted outside the schools of the Borough, asking the children to register themselves on the following Monday. At least 60 per cent. of those estimated to be still at home came eagerly to enroll themselves. To avoid having large numbers at school at the same time, an alphabetical list was made, giving the exact times at which the children should come. Teachers had to be provided for those who enrolled. This was made possible by the friendly co-operation of the education officials in the reception areas who allowed some teachers to be recalled.

All was now ready. At a meeting of the teaching staff the Director and the Head Mistress explained what they hoped to do for the children. One of the fundamental principles of the scheme was that there should at no time be more than a few children on the premises. It was, therefore, necessary to make a rigid time-table, so that pupils should come at definite times and so avoid congestion. It was not easy to get a child to come either five minutes before or five minutes after the time fixed for the interview. The schools were to be open from 9 to 12.30 and from 2 to 4 o'clock. The children, in groups of about thirty-five, were told to come every day.

On the first day many came far too early and groups of eager youngsters were at the gates. It was several days before they could be restrained from coming before the times appointed. Now, however, with the co-operation of the parents, the scheme is working smoothly, and at each school there is a steady stream of children coming and going.

Parents' Meetings

At each school there has been a meeting of parents. They were so eager for the continuation of their children's education that the meetings were crowded. An outline of the scheme was given and details were discussed. We can say already that parents and teachers will now be even closer partners in the work of education than ever before.

It was agreed that children in the various groups should go into the school singly, so that no teacher had more than one child in attendance at the same time. The teacher has work ready for the child when he arrives, and the time for each interview is from five to ten minutes. It is impossible, of course, to give any instruction in this short time, but the child takes the work home and brings it back for correction next day. He does not wait while the correction is done, but takes away more work in another book. In the meantime the first exercises are examined and appropriate remarks and explanations written at the end.

This formal work includes English and arithmetic, with history and geography for some of the groups. Practical activities also have an important part in the scheme. Suggestions are given to the boys for doing hand-work at home, and the girls are encouraged to do needlework and knitting. Gardening has been introduced for boys and girls and the verges of the playing fields have been divided into garden plots. The children will provide the seeds and will take the fruits of their labours home to their families. We have decided that juniors can be given about three hours formal work and seniors approximately four hours. At the parents' meetings we have emphasized the importance of work being done in the hours of daylight and under the supervision of the mothers as far as possible. The parents are eager to help, not only by making it possible for the children to do their work quietly at home, but by giving them some help. Mothers hear their children read aloud and question them on the subject matter. Indeed, so anxious are parents to help, that it has become necessary in some cases to restrain them from taking too active a part in the scheme.

Library Facilities

Physical training is not neglected. We have two playing-fields which can be reached by all

the children within a few minutes. These are used every day by the boys for football and by small groups of girls for country dancing and games whenever the weather is suitable.

We are fortunate in this area in having a large school section at the public library. Some of the books have been sent to the reception area, but several thousand have been kept for the children at home. Each of the schools making this experiment has received enough books for the children to exchange them as often as they please, and we find the use of the library an important part of the scheme.

It is difficult to include very young children in our plans. Teachers cannot give five- or six-year-olds homework which they can do without constant supervision. We are, therefore, gathering these very young ones into small groups of five or six. Parents have offered the use of rooms, and the teachers of the little ones will spend an hour or so a day with each of the groups. In this way the beginners will receive some real instruction and will be given simple work which they can do by themselves.

This is a brief outline of our scheme. It is a modest attempt to solve the problem of the education of children in our area where the schools cannot be opened and where the need for resuming education is very urgent.

The Evacuation of the Schools : Some First-hand Accounts

Passing through Rugby

AT the time of the evacuation I was in Rugby, temporarily unemployed, and with a borrowed car. Since June, Rugby had believed itself to be a neutral area, but official confirmation from the Government had never come through, and a bare week before evacuation began the town became aware that it might expect 11,000 visitors : school children, mothers and children, and expectant mothers.

The Borough Council and the local Women's

Voluntary Services rallied and prepared for the great reception. My sister and I presented ourselves at the W.V.S. office and were asked to take the car to the cattle market near the station, which would be the big distributing centre. Arrived there, we became at once part of Rugby's emergency organization. Throughout the two days we, as one of a fleet of private cars and municipal buses, met trains (which were often from one to two hours late) and conveyed mothers and children to the

cattle market and thence to the schools, which served as distributing centres for billeting.

The cattle market presented an unusual appearance: from a loud-speaker van there issued cheerful music, interspersed with jokes and announcements to 'our visitors'. A canteen provided a perpetual stream of cups of tea; a mobile ambulance unit, complete with St. John's nurses, was ready to receive exhausted mothers, some with two- and three-weeks-old babies, one with a baby of three days; it also sheltered strayed toddlers and produced feeds for hungry babies. Our tired visitors were seated on upturned boxes, while handcarts distributed bags of rations—sufficient for two days, with injunctions from the loud speaker 'not to eat all yours the first day'! Boy scouts and Air Force cadets were ready to lend a hand, frequently relieving mothers of obstreperous toddlers and heavy babies. All of us, including the local clergy, helped to entertain the children, who quickly became happy and dirty digging in the gravel.

There was no muddle or rush, and eventually all the train loads were dispersed to the various school centres. During the evening the work of actual billeting went on and darkness fell long before we had settled all our weary guests into their new homes. It was an anxious business, for everyone had believed that the town was neutral and that the promised billets would not be required. At some doors we could get no answer; at a few a surprised disclaimer that the promise had ever been given, but at the majority a welcoming smile and an assurance that 'we'll do our best'. I

helped escort a very tired little family, a mother and four children—two boys of seven and eight, a little boy of three, and a baby of six months. The two boys were received with open arms in one house, and we assured the anxious mother that she should be near by in the same street, but difficulties arose: the next house could take children but no mother, at the next there was no answer and so, laden with baggage, gas masks, bags of rations, and carrying the heavy babies, we went from door to door. Finally, we found hospitality and, calling back to see the two elder boys, found them seated happily at a game of snakes and ladders before going to bed.

However, all our efforts meant but a brief respite for the travellers. The loud speaker had broadcast its inexorable message: 'All evacuees will be re-evacuated on Tuesday: they must assemble at their schools at 8 a.m.'. Rugby was to be but a clearing station for safer areas, and on Tuesday we bade good-bye to our new friends.

They arrived at the schools in good spirits, all the grubby babies of the days before with polished faces and clean clothes, washed in many cases by their hostesses. There was genuine distress on both sides at the parting and several tearful good-byes. 'We had just settled down so nicely', they said. The going was protracted and wearisome: at our school we had to wait five hours before the last bus left, but mothers and children, as well as their hostesses, who stayed to see them off, showed a cheerful acceptance of the discomforts, and there was immense appreciation of kindnesses received.

M. Maw

Lambeth in Shaftesbury

SCHOOL days at the Archbishop Temple's Central School immediately prior to the evacuation of school children from London were, presumably, like those in most London schools. Our 'rehearsal' on Monday, August 28th, consisted chiefly in arranging boys, staff and helpers into groups, and seeing that all necessary equipment was in order. We assembled every following day, perishable foods, *e.g.* sandwiches, being taken home each night and replaced with fresh supplies the following morning.

At last, at 1 p.m. on Thursday, August 31st, came the official order for evacuation. We were scheduled to leave Waterloo at 12 p.m. on the second day, and so had a day's grace. We left school punctually and arrived early at the Control. A few minutes' wait here and we were passed on to Waterloo Station, straight on to the platform and into our train.

Naturally there were many eager questions as to whither we were bound, but a smile and cheery word from the Station officials was our only reply. When the train was on the move

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the guard told us we were going to Semley, and would arrive in two and a half hours' time. Most of us had to confess, to our shame, that we did not know Semley, and, in fact, had never heard of it. We soon discovered, by enquiry, and by consulting the railway map in our compartment, that it was about twenty miles beyond Salisbury, and the station for Shaftesbury.

We consumed some of our rations during the journey and composed ourselves as much as our curiosity and natural anxiety would allow. After a stop at Salisbury to change engines we pulled up at Semley just before 2 p.m. Here the boys were supplied with milk; nurses were in attendance, and doctors quickly examined our band of pilgrims, passing all as fit.

The reception officials were kindness itself, and as soon as possible informed us of our destination. Rumours had spread that we were to be scattered among the surrounding villages, but we were glad to know that we were to be more or less together, and were all bound for Shaftesbury.

Buses took us to Shaftesbury Town Hall, where tea was served and billeting began. This was naturally a rather long job. The evacuees were considered individually, and efforts were made to find the accommodation most suited to them. We were all thankful to get to bed at last.

On the following morning, Sunday, September 3rd, just after a state of war had been declared, all our party assembled at the Shaftesbury Senior School to send cards home, and to receive preliminary instructions. It was arranged that we were to work double shifts with the Senior School, and we assembled in the school playground every morning. School, for us, had not yet officially started, but we did our best to make ourselves useful with trench-digging, marking out of football and hockey pitches, and the making and erecting of goal posts. For the first few days the boys were given their freedom in the afternoons, so that they might have every opportunity to make themselves acquainted with the town and surrounding country.

School opened on Thursday, September 14th, the Senior School attending in the mornings from 9.0 to 12.30, and our own boys having the use of the building from 1.15 to 4.45. This arrangement has worked very well, but it is expected that both schools will soon be working full sessions. A Church Hall has been acquired, and by using it alternately with the school building some arrangement will be made whereby all scholars can put in a full day's work.

So much for our arrival in Shaftesbury and our arrangements for carrying on our school work. There are, of course, many drawbacks and difficulties and many advantages to the boys in such an environment, and although it is early yet to attempt any assessment of gains or losses, or to strike a balance of pros and cons, it is only natural that the difficulties are most obvious to us, and cause us the most concern.

The town itself immediately charmed everyone. Its streets, with their sometimes quaint names, its historical associations and ancient buildings, and, above all, its situation on a hill commanding such splendid views of the surrounding district, soon made us realize our

good fortune in coming to live in such a delightful and typically English country town.

There were at first a few misfits in connection with billeting. This was only to be expected, but by now these little difficulties have adjusted themselves. The vast majority of the boys have made themselves happy and comfortable, and do their best to help their foster parents in many little ways. Though boys of 11 to 16 years of age are not as a rule very highly domesticated, there are many little jobs they can do. It is a common sight to see our lads with shopping baskets, carrying parcels, 'gardening', or taking the dog for a run. Such things, however, soon pall, and there is a probability that when the novelty of the situation wears off, as it must, that boredom will be the forerunner of homesickness. The freedom from parental control has manifested itself in many ways—some very unexpected. It was only natural that 15-year-olds, given their freedom in a town far from home, should imagine they were 25 and find a certain interest in tobacco and similar 'manly' indulgences which perhaps they could not freely enjoy at home. This, however, was short-lived and soon cured itself. Perhaps a little less regard than usual for wear and tear of boots and clothing is a more serious problem. On the other hand, some of those boys who were expected to prove most difficult have turned out to be model evacuees. How much this is due to the interest and understanding of their foster parents it is not possible to say, and there is no doubt that, at first, there was a danger of some boys being spoilt by kindness.

To a London boy the country gives great freedom, and although no deliberate harm has been done, it has had to be made clear in no uncertain manner to some of the younger lads that a hayrick can easily be damaged and a farmer suffer loss or inconvenience, if it should be interfered with. On the whole, however, there has been very little friction between boys and townsfolk. The people of Shaftesbury have, in the majority of cases, shown themselves sympathetic, generous and kind, and unsparing in their efforts to make us welcome and comfortable. It is generally realized that, so far as the Staff are concerned, we are naturally anxious about our own houses and property

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and that, much as we like the town and all connected with it, we would rather be in our own homes.

Owing to the early hour of afternoon lessons, and to save trouble and expense to foster parents, about a hundred of Temple's boys have their mid-day meal at the Senior School. It is here that the 'helpers', wives of the Staff, are found of great help. There is also washing and mending to be done, and it is expected that there will shortly be still more employment for the helpers.

School naturally presents many difficulties. Only about a third of our boys formed the evacuation party, roughly 130 in number. These, owing to lack of accommodation, have had to be made into four forms. Each form is, therefore, a bit of a mixture as regards attainment, but a certain average standard will eventually emerge, which will naturally be rather lower than normal. If and when the hall referred to above is brought into use, there will be further difficulties as the School and hall are on opposite sides of the town. A great drawback has been the lack of books, though a car-load of text-books and school

material was brought down at the earliest possible moment; but we understand that text-books and stationery are to be available very shortly, so work will be carried on more easily.

It may be suggested that local geography and history, together with a study of country conditions generally, might form the basis of study so that no text-books should be urgently required, but it was thought desirable that the school should, as far as possible, retain its 'Central' characteristics, and the scheme of study be carried on as normally as possible. Though prepared, and still preparing, for a long war, it is not without the bounds of possibility that it may be shorter than we imagine, and if the normal scheme of work is carried on, it will be easier for boys to settle down to home conditions again. However, as regards Geography, a certain amount of outdoor work has already been done, and the geography in the Junior School will certainly have a 'local' bias.

The country air and healthy surroundings

are, of course, a great asset. There can be no doubt that physically, at any rate, the boys will benefit.

One point must be mentioned. Apart from the heavy rain which greeted us on our arrival at Semley, and for one wet afternoon, the weather has been consistently fine. It is difficult to judge how much a spell of bad weather would have affected our settling down in our new surroundings, but when bad conditions arise, as they must very soon, we shall be glad when full sessions are worked, so that the boys can be occupied as much as possible.

The problem of week-ends still remains. There will be no going to Chelsea or Fulham, and few of the entertainments that offer themselves in London. It may be that a broader outlook will develop during this separation from home and its particular interest and amusements. If so, the evacuation of Temple's from Lambeth will have had at least one thing in its favour, other than the safety of its scholars.

C. H. Learner

Bringing Films to a Village

As Headmaster of a well-equipped Junior Boys' School in West Ham one of my regrets when evacuation was ordered was that projector and reception apparatus must perforce be left behind. Once we were settled in our country home, somewhere in Berkshire, it was realized anew how useful our projector apparatus would be to us, and a successful effort was made to bring it down.

Our School had been split and was housed in two villages six miles apart. In both places, however, in spite of the inconveniences of premises and lack of materials, thanks to the ready help and co-operation of the local Headmasters, almost normal routine was soon resumed. Schools in both places are working the double shift system, the home school in the morning and the visitors in the afternoon.

Arrangements had been made for a supply of films from various sources to be sent to the school week by week, and although evacuation had caused a break in the supply it was an easy matter to get it renewed. Films arranged

for were based mainly on the syllabus in Geography and Nature Study, while others were of general interest. We were fortunate that though both schools are situated in rather remote villages a source of electric power was available in both, and more fortunate still in that we had an up-to-date 'Ensign' rear projection screen that has just been put on the market and which solves the problem of darkening the projection room by giving a good picture in subdued daylight. An easily seen picture, suitable for classroom purposes can be obtained by the use of this screen with a 250-watt lamp in the projector, provided steps are taken to prevent direct light from a window falling on it. This screen has the additional advantage of being easily portable.

The necessary dimming was accomplished by hanging old maps over the windows, and all was soon set for our first film lesson. The home Headmaster was an interested spectator, and on being offered the use of the apparatus accepted with enthusiasm. It was a pleasure

after receiving so much help to be able to offer something in return, and we have found that the possession of our projection apparatus has brought us into closer touch with various sections of village life, who see in it a means of widening the scope of their own activities.

The arrangement in both villages now is that the films are used by both schools, one of the visiting staff acting as operator whenever the films are shown. In our more remote village, where a visit to 'The Pictures' is normally quite an event, some of the local adult folk expressed a wish to see the type of picture which was being shown to the children and which had evidently made such an impression on them. Arrangements for this were soon made, and now it seems that a showing to the grown-ups will be part of the weekly routine.

The decision to use the apparatus in both villages necessitated some plan being made to transport the apparatus to and fro. It packs easily into a small car, and in order to minimise the damaging effect of frequent carrying from one village to the other, arrangements were made whereby only one journey per week is necessary.

The home headmasters were particularly interested in the technique of the film lesson. We adopted our usual procedure which with

a short teaching film is as follows: a brief introductory talk on the subject of the film precedes the first showing, which is seen in silence. During rewinding the teacher draws attention to the film's chief points. The film is then shown a second time with a suitable commentary by the teacher. A 'follow up', either orally or in the form of notes, immediately or soon after completes the lesson. One headmaster determined to adopt the same method for his first film lesson and was surprised at the keen interest shown and at the amount of detailed information that was retained by his children. Both he and they eagerly await the advent of the next week's film, and he regards the apparatus as a most valuable teaching aid. To us who had already had some years' experience of film work in school this was further proof of the value of film lessons, and we felt repaid for the trouble we had taken in getting our apparatus down from our home school.

To those schools whose apparatus has been left behind I would suggest that every effort should be made to bring it to the reception area, not only as a valuable adjunct to the somewhat improvised educational schemes we are at present struggling with, but as a means of rendering more cordial the relations between hosts and visitors in these areas.

W. A. Welch

Sharing Schools

MY own particular school, Godwin Road, is scattered over eight different villages, the furthest of which are 16 miles apart. I found myself in this village, the only teacher, with 30 children of either sex with an age range of from 5-13.

My children have combined with the village children. The village teachers take my young ones in exchange. I teach their oldest children with my seniors. We of the senior class occupy the Parish Hall, because the school is overcrowded. I take all subjects, which is a delightful change from specializing in handwork and science.

We attend school in the morning only, because a Catholic school from Grays occupies the building in the afternoon. This school, however, hopes shortly to get the use of a

large house, when we shall all be able to attend school during the normal hours.

At first the village children were very shy of me, but they are used to me by now and we get on very well together. The mixing of town and country children is a very fine education in itself, and is a more satisfactory arrangement than working independently. The evacuated children are made happier by it for they make firmer friendships with the village children.

I am waiting to receive a film projector from our 'visual aids' inspector, and when I receive it I intend to use it for the combined school. We fortunately have electricity both at the school and at the Parish Hall. The latter will be more suitable for the exhibition

of films, because it may be more easily darkened and is a better shape for projection.

I intend at first to obtain films from the Post Office Film Library at South Kensington. We had ordered films from this source up to Christmas at the school in West Ham before the evacuation. It should be a simple matter to get the films transferred to here.

I hope to order films from the various agencies concerned. I should like to show biological films so that both evacuees and villagers can fully understand the life they see around them.

We could show these educational films to adults in the Parish Hall at night and perhaps a judicious passing of the hat might augment our funds for further hiring of films.

I also intend organizing a club for the children from about 5 till 7 p.m. twice a week in the Parish Hall, so that they can meet and play games. Occasionally, say fortnightly, films would be shown. These films would be for amusement. I can hire them cheaply: they are made by the Pathescope people and include a dozen or so of the old Charlie Chaplin

films, which are really good entertainment. There are also several dramas of the cowboy type and slap-stick comedy so beloved by children. Our projector will take both 9.5 and 16 mm.

As the nearest cinema is at Woodbridge, over three miles away, these little entertainments will help to while away the winter evenings.

I propose making a small charge for these clubs of, say, a penny a week. I find, from experience, that children appreciate more what they pay for. The money will buy games and help with the hiring of films.

I find that at Melton, a neighbouring village, the Headmaster already has a projector, and we could arrange to exchange films with each other. This would extend our library. Other films that could be shown are sport films. Football was unknown in the village until we came. A football film would be very useful in teaching the boys how to play.

Doubtless, too, the rector of the local church would, at times, like to show films of religious interest to his parishioners.

C. H. Penfold

Billeted in a Cattle Town

LEFt, with helpers, 500 strong.

Buses on time, and with police and general help by parents, the party set off.

District train: one hour's run nearly gassed us—shocking ventilation. At Ealing, railway officials, police, first aid, and all helpers were wonderful—whole party (unfortunately split) transferred from one train to two others in 12 minutes. Junior boys' party, with majority of infants, arrived at Bicester. This being a cattle town the various groups on the train assembled in railway yard. There we were 'graded', 'buyers' made their bids and we, luckily, were 'bought' by Bicester itself; other parties went to the rural districts. Ours marched to Junior School and in thirty minutes children were off to their billets. Only snag teachers were left to shift for themselves, but this was easy.

Teachers met daily at 11 a.m. Senior School—helped trace children. Thursday, September 7th, children met and were addressed by Head Teacher—next two days sports and

rambles, followed by combined school on Monday—too cramped. Double shift tried, but found very detrimental to teachers and children—infants suffered from undue strain.

In company with Junior Headmistress, local halls were sought. Everyone willing, and after visiting County Offices, Oxford, all arrangements were pronounced O.K. This meant that on September 11th the Junior Boys met as an entire school in the Masonic Hall, and the Infants similarly in the Wesley Hall, both departments being run with only cost of light, heat, and cleaning.

Tour of halls showed possibility of cinemas. The Wesley Hall was blacked out with brown paper framed with battens—opening and closing. Head Teacher sent for car and projector with accessories. The current being A.C./230 there was only small adjustment to be made on resistance for Paillard Bolex Machine. Hall was shorter, but lens allowed for adjustment, giving a smaller picture.

The contract to supply films, incomplete,

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was taken up again, but as we had no catalogue choice was left to the firm responsible.¹ Two films arrived and appropriate choice had been made, the Chilterns and the Zoo at Whipsnade both being in this district. These films were shown to the Junior and Infants' School and formed a delightful break in ordinary school life. Whispers from the local children through the evacuees show how much the scholars think and learn from these shows. Even the teachers find a tonic in them. After the show a talk on the film is given, then children return and make notes on the picture.

The local Junior School visited our Cinema Hall to see our own production, a film of West Ham. This is a three-reel work dealing with its situation, transport, buildings, docks, works, sport, etc., made by a teacher on the staff, under my direction. The film filled the local children with awe and amazement. The sight of the Victoria and Royal Albert Docks, with their great liners, brought wonder to their eyes. The giant locomotives at Stratford, the busy roads, the wonderful turn-out of the whole of the fire engines at Stratford, followed by fire exercises of every description at Regents' Lane, was very exciting. The sporting centres, West Ham Football Club and the West Ham stadium, thrilled the children—the multitudes of people and size of arenas was an eye-opener to them.

Even the local staff was amazed at the accomplishment of such a film, and the local

children will now look upon the evacuees as coming from a wonderful place and this will perhaps exalt them in their eyes. Films for leisure are on the way and the first variety show will be given next week. A show lasting one and a half hours at 5 o'clock, admission 2d. to all children, should provide amusement for an evening and funds for evacuees.

With the funds thus provided, the sewing circles run by the helpers and the British Legion can be supplied with material and mending stuffs when present funds are exhausted. Some £13 formed a good basis. £3 from West Ham, £4 through Mr. Thomson (County School), £5 church collection, and £1 gift made up the fund. Pictures, concerts, and a Christmas pantomime will add considerably to the exchequer. The school has been asked to give a concert for Poppy Day, and this will be done. Credit to the staff and helpers who have worked willingly.

Every evening members attend to help with games at various halls and clubs. The Boys' Club, Methodist, Congregational, Salvation, and Church Halls are all open to the children and here fraternization takes place freely. The school team beat a local XI at footer last Saturday by 7-1, and another against Boys' Club takes place next Saturday.

Oh, concerts and cinemas to be given in rural areas where halls and current (suitable) are available.

Given suitable weather, a local film will be made to hand down and use: 'Bicester and its surroundings'.

Spare lamp was sent for—very necessary.

E. Hart

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¹ Films are gladly sent by the Imperial Institute, South Kensington, S.W.7. They are sent free, provided postage is paid both ways. My new contract will be made with Ensign, Limited. This is, or was, £5 for 60 reels and pay postage one way. Other films from this firm can be had from 2s. 6d. per reel and upwards.

The Human Element

ANYONE of a mechanical turn of mind knows that one thing always crops up to spoil perfection, or, contrariwise, to remedy imperfection—the human element. However perfect, however foolproof a machine, the human element has always to be remembered. So it is with the mechanism of evacuation.

We have now been from London for a month. We left like sheep—many of us feeling that we might be going to the ‘slaughter’ though supposed to be going to safety—not knowing where we were going—but finding shepherds at every corner! The organization at the London end was perfect, and since we travelled over 100 miles and every child was under a friendly though strange roof within six and a half hours, the organization throughout must also have been perfect. Multitudes of difficulties were immediately encountered. Officials of all kinds insisted, orders of all kinds got given and were variously interpreted, children cried, children laughed, children—well, children *were* children, and men and women behaved as men and women always have—according as their various characters dictated. So I say the human element at once became apparent. As time went on the human element became dominant; the machine either ceased to function altogether or was so adapted that it ran more smoothly and in time almost efficiently.

Thousands of views and suggestions of what should and what should not have been done already poured into offices of all sorts—

Schools should have been in touch with each other before evacuation: buildings should

have been commandeered for communal housing: schools should have been complete units after the style of battalions complete with nurses and doctors, and so on and so forth.

But whatever the scheme, however experienced we might have been, the human element would have crept in.

Tucked away in the heart of Somerset I have yet been able to contact people who have had experiences elsewhere, and I come to the conclusion that it was qualities of tact, of courtesy, of seeing the other man’s point of view, rather than any ‘schemes’, which brought success. Many Londoners left with the dread of ‘yokel officialdom’. Many ‘yokels’ dreaded the London domineering. Result: fireworks! When, however, the human element crept in and each discovered the other to be an earnest person, bent on doing his best, then the fireworks proved a glorious light.

Thus I assert that the spirit of the earliest instructions issued by our Education Officer, his letter of March 30th and that of June 30th, was of more importance than the instructions themselves. Co-operation, the sense of duty, the resolution to assist rather than to resist, these were the necessities for successful evacuation. Teachers received no ‘orders’ about their duties. Saturdays, Sundays, school hours, and so on, were left to our common sense. Where we did not use common sense things went wrong. Where we were tactless or lazy, the machine broke down. But the absence of strict orders inspired most of us to efforts no instructions would have exacted.

A. E. Dawes

Impressions of a Foster-parent

MY experience of evacuation is as a foster-mother of three London girls, aged between twelve and thirteen. They are quite clean, quite friendly, and generally decent; yet completely lacking in any of the deeper qualities that education ought to enable a child to develop. Co-operation, responsibility, interest in some aspects of life, sense of

beauty and pleasant manners; these few among the many important factors in human development appear to be totally neglected in my three children.

Their knowledge of ordinary school subjects is below the standard of a child of eight who has been brought up in good home surroundings and in an enlightened school. They have

the vaguest ideas of our geographical position and have no sense whatever of history, of the life and habits of animals, or of anything else in which we might expect a developing child to take some interest. Nothing seems to matter to them and there is little they care for except ice-creams, cinemas and rotten cheap papers full of sentimental, sexy love stories.

It is indèscribably hard to help them towards any appreciation of the beauties of trees, moonlight nights, spiders' webs glittering in the morning sun; but worse than this, they appear to be completely insensitive to any of the simpler beauties and wonders of nature. I hope that in due course I may be able to produce some slight result through the gathering of nuts, of blackberries, of mushrooms, and of fir cones for the evening fire.

These things have given me cause for anxious consideration, but a hundred times more disturbing is the continual sound of three ugly, shrieking, and unmusical voices. I have lived in barracks and in large schools and have

spent time in clubs for working people, but never has any noise been so deeply disturbing as these silly vulgar noises in my own house. This is not a resentful exaggeration, but a true statement.

It might be thought that I have been writing of children from the poorest and most depressing slums. On the contrary, all my children's parents are decent and well-paid working people, living in quite good a district in London in direct contact with relatively wealthy areas, and near parks and playgrounds. The family incomes are sufficient to allow for many amenities and small luxuries.

My conclusion must be that some sections of our educational system are failing to perform their simplest fundamental duties. The whole matter deserves closer and more detailed analysis than I can give, but of the huge and vitally important problems which have been brought to light by 'evacuation' there can be no doubt.

War Gains for Peace Time

Vivian Ogilvie

A GREAT crisis cracks the surface of a nation's existence into a jumble of fragments and uncovers what lay beneath. It is like a burst sewer heaving up the even, glossy street which men have been placidly treading. Ugly as the first effect may be, the emergency is at the same time an opportunity to be seized. Just as the material arrangements among which we have been living may be out of date, wasteful, unhealthy, so our human arrangements and the systems and ideas in which our spirits have been living may be dead encumbrances that were due to be swept away.

A crisis is—as the Greek word suggests—an opportunity for a sorting out. We cannot settle down again in the rut out of which history has pitched us. We have got to go on to something else. Even if we are so misguided as to try to restore everything to its former condition, like the citizens of London after the Great Fire, we cannot avoid creating something

different; we can only avoid creating something better. We are compelled, however reluctantly, to undertake some sorting out.

The present crisis of war did not take us unawares. It was heralded by a series of premonitory heavings which had already produced fissures in a surface that was not exactly even. We had reached a point of vantage from which we were looking back, a little despondently, over the years since the Great War. Our new world was not what we had hoped for. It seemed that we had not sorted out thoroughly enough. New ideas and forces were operating, it is true. The desire for peace and a decent international order, for instance, became strong and all but universal. But too many old ideas and forces were still at work. Throughout this year many of us had been feeling a profound dissatisfaction with what we had been able to do. Some felt as though the clues they had been following had faded out. There were even some who

said that the N.E.F. had finished its job and could close down !

The shock of war has made one thing clear : it is no time for packing up. The old ideas and old forces are on the warpath again ; in revolt against the new, they have precipitated the present crisis. Voluntary organizations for the promotion of ideals may well find themselves in financial straits, but the need for their work has not vanished. The need for permanent ideals is more urgent than ever. *Ad hoc* motives and aims, improvised to carry nations through a war, dissolve with the occasion that has called for them. But ideals which men can cherish without the compulsion of a crisis will survive to operate when the crisis has passed. It is a time for sorting out our ideals, for making certain of their validity and their bearing.

Of the validity of the N.E.F. ideals I, for one, remain convinced. The same, I hope, is true of all members of the Fellowship. Where we have been in some difficulty is in seeing the bearings of these ideals. Every individual is liable to harbour some aims and desires which are incompatible with the ideals that inform his conscious, public life. At a moment like the present we are challenged to set our motives over against one another as honestly as we can and to resolve the conflicts between them. We have to see where our aims are leading us and choose.

The fundamental position of the N.E.F. is clear. And it is deliberately and explicitly rejected by the *Weltanschauung* that has been making life in Europe intolerable. In *Mein Kampf* Hitler says : 'The dogma according to which the individual personality has the right to its liberty and its dignity can mean nothing but destruction.' We believe that this dogma is the only possible foundation for a worthy human existence. We have stood, too, for the corollaries of this belief : freedom to think, read, discuss and publish, respect for one another, acceptance of individual differences of aptitude and taste, the substitution of voluntary co-operation for coercion, and so forth.

So far, so good. But we cannot doubt that there is more involved in our position than we have yet perceived, and it is one of our tasks

at this moment to think out as searchingly as possible these further implications. Like all living things, the New Education grows. Dr. Zilliaceus has noted four main stages in its unfolding up to date. (i) The movement started with the discovery and apotheosis of the individual. (ii) It then realized that what applied to 'the individual' must be extended to have regard to all individuals. (iii) Having reached this social conception, it saw that the claims of the individual and society called for the socialization of the individual. (iv) It became conscious of a new world in the making as the result of the New Education and kindred ideas.

These points are closely linked together. From concern with the individual we are led to concern with society, and it is our concern with the individual that determines our attitude towards society. In our schools we see the possibility of a community of socialized individuals living happy and fruitful lives. We see that spiritually free individuals can only be socialized in a society which is based on belief in the value of the human being and which is striving to extend to all individuals the fullest opportunity of development. Out of this experience is growing the effort to build a new world, fitted to the needs of free men and women.

The great danger of to-day is that men and women will be socialized to fit a society that does not fulfil these conditions. This has happened in Germany. The people of that country had, individually, reached a certain moral and spiritual level. The Nazis set up a form of society very much lower than that level and proceeded to 'socialize' individuals to fit into its pattern. The result has been a wholesale degradation of the German people.

This problem of 'moral man in immoral society', which is facing all countries to-day, can be solved in two ways : either by dragging man down to the level of society, or by lifting society to the level that man has reached. The issue between these two solutions is the ideal or moral issue being fought out in the world at this moment. On the outcome depends the possibility or impossibility of further educational progress.

Society, organized as the State, has for a

considerable time been growing in importance. The tendency has reached its peak in the totalitarian countries. However much we may deplore it, we should consider whether there is not something in the tendency which corresponds to the needs of man as a social animal. It is not to be denied that people in totalitarian countries have found a real satisfaction in consciously belonging to a community of human beings. In comparison, life in one of the 'individualist' countries seems rather lonely and chilly. God forbid that we should see our countries go totalitarian, but have we not something to learn from the idea of *Volks-gemeinschaft*?

A war casts a strange light on the relations between individual and society. In the relatively democratic countries war brings a temporary abandonment of the customary relations. We feel that we form a community, and because we begin to think in terms of the community we consent to changes that we should resent at other times. We obey a whole host of orders. We take into our homes the evacuated women and children of the slums. Not only does society, organized as the State, take over the running of the nation's economic life, but it also takes over a great deal of responsibility for the individual which it has refused to shoulder in peace time.

This is most remarkable of all in a country like Britain, where our traditions are strongly individualist. It has been our habit to think that a man has to look after his own welfare, that it is his business to procure what is necessary for his wife and children, and to provide for his and their future. Circumstances have compelled us to compromise in certain directions, *e.g.* free education and various health and social services, but at heart we have not abandoned our individualist principles. Some of our fellow citizens disapprove of social services as 'doing things for people who are too lazy or shiftless to do them for themselves'. And we have generally preferred to leave such things as long as possible in the hands of voluntary organizations.

The question naturally arises: why are we prepared in war time to see the community undertake responsibilities which we should resolutely assign to the individual in peace

time? Or, conversely, why have we not been prepared to let the community do as much for people in peace time as we think proper in war time?

If we ponder these questions we shall come to the conclusion, I believe, that our notion of community has been inadequate. It is when we consider our attitude to children that this inadequacy stands out most conspicuously. The British people, as a community, have not done the best they could for the children of the nation, because a mistaken individualism has taught them to regard children as the concern of individual parents, not of the community. This underlying notion in British life is incompatible with the ideals, not only of the N.E.F., but of many larger and more influential bodies. If we take the view that human personality is the supreme wealth of a community, we must insist that the community's first business is to promote the well-being and full development of human personality. This means that we must accustom ourselves to the idea that the community is responsible for providing the best possible chances of human development, in health and education especially.

We all agree that the community must take full responsibility for the health, well-being, training and recreation of the armed forces. No one would suggest that a soldier should only have such equipment as he can afford to buy! We argue that the soldier must be equipped as perfectly as the community can afford, because he is there to secure the community's safety and its future. But the most important part of its future is with us here and now, attending or leaving school. A child's chances should no more depend on his parents' resources than do a soldier's on the size of his purse. We are prepared to make the community effort to evacuate the children to the country in an emergency. Let us see to it that, when there is no emergency, they get the very best that the country can give them.

In this matter we can learn from the totalitarian countries. Whatever their motives may be, they are prepared to do whatever they deem necessary for their young people regardless of cost. They conceive the health and

education of the young as the community's business. I am as strongly opposed to totalitarian education as any man alive, but I am obliged to praise the generous provision those countries make for the oncoming generations. The war situation, in which the principle of community responsibility is tacitly conceded, offers us in Britain a unique opportunity to get that principle acted upon in matters of education and child welfare. The exceptional

problems of the evacuated children can only be solved by community action. Let us hang on to the principle, get it applied in as many ways as we can for the good of the children, so that when this situation has passed the community will take it for granted that this is the right way to do these things. This will be a real gain in the move forward towards the kind of community that will match the kind of individual our education is trying to produce.

The Camp as Clinic*

Anne McAllister

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CHILD Guidance sets out to train the child to be courageously self-reliant and to make his social contacts successfully. To be effective methods of Guidance must deal with the child as he 'behaves' in circumstances that test him as an individual and as a member of a group.

Camp life then seems to offer an excellent opportunity for guidance, and at the outset it has the advantage of appealing to the child as a game in which he is willing to participate. This is why the Speech Therapist of Chesterfield and Mansfield organizes for the stutterers under his care a week of camp life as an experiment in treatment. In his view the speech defective is a typical case of timorous self-consciousness and of maladjustment, one who has failed significantly to 'find his feet' or to make satisfying or satisfactory social contacts. His greatest need, then, is help in facing up to experience and in adapting himself to social demands. The experiment was first tried in the summer of 1938, and proving suggestively successful was repeated this year with a larger number of cases—34 boys in all, the big majority of whom were stutterers, some suffering also from other forms of dyslalia. The camp was held for one week only, a period that at first thought seems too short to permit of results of any significant value.

* NOTE.—This article was written early in August before schools and communities were faced with the immense problems of 'evacuation'. It may be that a solution of some of the difficulties might be found in a more deliberate attempt to organize the day of evacuated children on community lines like those suggested below.

The writer visited the camp with a good deal of curiosity and some misgiving. The speech defective is peculiarly in need of individual treatment and it seemed questionable whether he would fit into the demands of camp life. Further, the duration of the camp seemed to be dangerously short, apt to induce upset as well as emphasis of negativism in the child's approach to the group; and it seemed possible that such a defect as stuttering might well become worse when stutterers were brought together in the close association of camp life. Two and a half days spent with the boys left impressions very different from these early surmises: they also strengthened the conviction that *any clinic purporting to give guidance must operate in circumstances that present the child with real problems of living.*

It may be argued that the method would not necessarily be successful with other problem cases merely because it gave such positive results with a small group of stutterers, since these are not delinquent or educationally retarded. But often the speech defective is both: many speech defectives, by reason of the thwarting experiences that are their lot, are potential problem cases in behaviour, and are frequently backward in school subjects. The emotional problems that centre round a speech disability are too often severe and deep-seated, and in fact the speech defect is in some cases as significantly an abnormality in behaviour as are the majority of the problems dealt with in the Guidance Clinic.

(1) The visit was paid during the last three days of the experiment, and *throughout that period no stuttering was heard*. The minor speech defects such as lalling and burring were in evidence, but neurotic hesitancy and lisping were conspicuously absent. Yet there was a good deal of speech going on. *The boys were talkative*. The records of the cases present showed that all in attendance were certified stutters and dyslalics referred by teachers for special treatment, one or two of them being described as stutters of the speechless type, *i.e.* not known as ever having been able to speak in class. Two factors qualifying the situation should be noted. Firstly, all the cases had been undergoing treatment for some months, so that the camp clinic came as an opportunity for knitting together improvements already under way. Secondly, one or two of the boys had been at the camp in 1938 and had begged to be allowed to return, although *since the previous camp they had suffered no return of their disability*. They were there because they wished to repeat an experience which they had proved to be helpful, and naturally that fact and their attitude assisted to some extent in creating the atmosphere of hopeful encouragement that pervaded the camp.

The conversation of the boys was observed in all sorts of varying situations—wandering through the wood in their company while they played as fancy suggested—‘Wild Indians’, ‘Explorers in the jungle’, ‘Climbing Monkeys’, etc., etc., or broke off to remark on fern or flower or, to say spontaneously, as one obstreperous nine-year-old did, *‘It’s a cool green place this!’* One afternoon they spent in small motor boats on a pleasure pond to which they had been conveyed in ‘buses’. They sailed three in each boat yelling instructions and warnings to each other, all speech disability thrown overboard. One, a particularly violent stutterer, who was regarded as the most excitable and unmanageable case in camp, was heard calling across the pond to another, *‘Keep cool, old man, and keep your hands on the wheel! Don’t get excited!’* Going about their camp duties, talking casually to each other in passing, they showed an easy control of speech that belied their case-histories. Then an experience of ‘speech on parade’, as it were,

came with the camp party, to which various adult friends were invited. After supper an exodus was made to a grassy bank near the camp hut, and here we sat down to be entertained by the boys. The programme was quite informal, most of the items being impromptu. One or two told stories (most of them humorous), one or two sang solos with choruses by the whole camp. Then a book was passed from one to another, and each selected a portion to read to the company. The book was *The Wind in the Willows*—that lovely text-book of healthy community life. One of the visitors, a teacher, hearing her own stuttering pupil read fluently and with evident enjoyment and appreciation of the story, exclaimed, *‘But it’s a miracle!’*; and inevitably came her query, *‘Will it last?’* And one felt inclined to reply, *‘Yes! it will last if in your classroom this atmosphere of ease and confidence can be created’*. One mother said, *‘But why does D—— not do this at home? He isn’t stuttering at all to-night’*. And, again, the only possible reply was *‘Because somehow home atmosphere has not made it possible for him’*.

One short week of camp life! and real evidence of successful adjustment to it showed in the effortless speaking of the boys.

(2) The ages of the boys varied from 5 to 14 years. A wide variation, one would say, making for difficulties. But no! It seemed to be a positive advantage. The older boys obviously looked upon the youngsters as their special responsibility; some of them had found a favourite protégé. The little ones were finding an evident stimulus in being allowed to work with, and to help their seniors. It said much for the influence abroad in the camp that there was no evidence of bullying or selfishness or taking advantage of weaker camp-mates. The Therapist had shown a good deal of skill in arranging the boys in ‘squads’, so that he had reduced to a minimum the likelihood of much clash of temperament, or of the smaller and weaker being elbowed into the background. His arrangement of the groups made for the development of confidence, more particularly in the older boys, many of whom were sensing for the first time mastery of the situation in which they found themselves and ability to speak easily to lads younger than

themselves. The little ones also were so placed that they were finding a new confidence in the fact that the older boys gave them real jobs to do, tolerated their company, and even joined them in their little ploys—carrying withered branches for the bonfire, or playing cricket with toy stumps, bat and ball. Eloquent also of many things was the sight of the flush of pleasure on the face of one of the six-year-olds when his squad leader goodnaturedly showed him how to lay the cutlery on the table for lunch, saying as he did so: 'Say, son, you're wanting them to use the wrong end of the fork. Put 'em down this way!'

In assessing the experiment, one wanted to know something of the temperamental type of the lads, and their reaction to the inevitable discipline and routine of camp life. The boys were a very mixed lot; only a few had been referred for speech treatment without additional comments by teachers on behaviour difficulties.

No. 18, a 'faddy' boy of 14, who had announced on his arrival 'I don't like cheese . . . I don't like so-and-so . . . and so-and-so . . .' seemed to have developed an indiscriminating appetite and with its arrival had shed his 'whine'. It was said of him that '*at camp he had learned to smile!*'

No. 2, an anxious little lad of five years, had kept asking on his journey out to camp—'Will the 'bus stop at our corner on the way home?' He had lost much of his apprehensiveness, and by the fifth day was expressing his complete unwillingness to go home. Somehow in camp his worrying attitude was in abeyance, and the discomfort of his stutter ceased to be present. That was what he wished to maintain.

No. 14 had the worst reputation of any, was reported to be a bad boy, a dodger, a frequent truant. In camp he proved to be a most attractive personality, willing, humorous, very hard-working, thoughtfully seeing things to do that most of the others failed to notice. On the night of the camp party, he was voted by the others the 'best' boy in camp. The prizes given that night consisted of chocolate figures that had been used as table centre pieces at supper. No. 14, as 'best' boy, was given first choice: he could have chosen the ornament of most edible content. Instead he selected a stuffed cloth rabbit holding in its paws a very much smaller chocolate one. The boys laughed at his choice, twitting him jocularly about it: but he was quite nonchalant, and when asked later about his choice he said 'I don't care! We've got a little baby in our house—18 months—the rabbit's for her. She'll like it.'

No. 10, aged 11 years, has a father who considers that all the treatment he requires is a 'clink across the head'. By the fourth day in camp he had forgotten his stutter and had developed a cheery loquaciousness hitherto quite foreign to him. He had found a listening ear of sympathy instead of the heavy hand of irritation.

No. 8 was one of the older boys, a slow lad who had been quite speechless in his stuttering, and was reported to be very sulky. He brought his dog to camp with him, but very soon it became the 'camp' dog, and he shared it with the others willingly. He showed no signs either of sulkiness or of speechlessness. He had not a great deal to say, but he answered easily when addressed, and while peeling potatoes one day told a joke which was all the more effective because of his slow quiet manner. Speaking of camp he said 'It's quite easy to speak here. Nobody worries you. Mr. Keane (the Therapist), he just waits for you.'

TO OUR READERS :

1. Will you send us your new address (if you have one) ?
2. Will you write us short accounts of your problems and of any solutions you may already have found for them ?
3. Would you like to be put into touch with other readers or N.E.F. members in your neighbourhood so that you may form a discussion group ? If so, N.E.F. headquarters would willingly send you a speaker for your first informal meeting.
4. Will you let us have the name of anyone whom you think **likely** to become a new subscriber ?

No. 23, nine years old, had the reputation of being a liar. Camp proved salutary in two ways. When he was busy he forgot to 'yarn'; when the others were busy they took no notice of him. He lacked an audience; there was no one ready to be impressed, and just as important, no one whom he could irritate to annoyance or to uttering the reproofs familiar at home and school.

No. 24 was 10 years old and was a stunted dull child with a very bad stutter. On the third day he had been visited by his grandmother, who so commiserated with him on being away from home that he cried vociferously to go back with her. He was kept with a promise that he would go next day if he wished to. Next morning he elected to stay, forgot to be petted, and became definitely a boy among boys, entering into the spirit of duty and play with normal zest and enjoyment. As he climbed into bed on the last night, he looked up at the Therapist with an inarticulate gratitude in his look and said, 'I don't stutter no more, Sir!'

No. 32 was a very young six-year-old from a comfortable home where he had been carefully sheltered. His stutter was imitated from his father. He was courageously staying away from his mother for the first time, and she, equally courageous, had allowed him out of her sight for the first time. He was voted the best 'little boy' in camp, and certainly he adapted himself to all the new personal responsibilities of camp in a very happy way. The result of his week at camp is that his father has presented himself for treatment!

So one might continue through the list, detailing difficulties and noting adjustments, but the foregoing will suffice to show what the material was like, and what was the nature of the result.

It appeared to the writer that the satisfactory results of this brief taste of camp life were due to several factors.

(1) The organization of camp duties induced self-discipline. Each boy was allotted a camp number, and was allocated to an 'Orderly Squad'—and the squads proved to be orderly in more than duties. The following notices were posted on the wall of the dining room :

DAILY DUTIES

- 1. Table Orderlies—Set, clear, and clean tables at each meal.
- 2. House Orderlies—Sweep and tidy Hut.
- 3. Cook's Orderlies—Potatoes, vegetables, etc.
- 4. Kitchen Orderlies—Washing up.
- 5. Water Orderlies—Water carrying as required.
- 6. General Orderlies—Assist as required.

ORDERLY SQUADS

- SQUAD A—Nos. 2, 3, 14, 25, 26, 31, 34.
- B— „ 5, 10, 13, 23, 27, 32, 33.
- C— „ 7, 12, 15, 17, 19, 22, 35.
- D— „ 6, 8, 11, 20, 24, 30.
- E— „ 1, 9, 16, 21, 28, 29.
- F— „ 4, 18.

SQUADS ON VARIOUS DUTIES EACH DAY

Duty	Sat.	Sun.	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thur.	Fri.	Sat.
1	A	B	C	D	E	A	B	C
2	B	C	D	E	A	B	C	D
3	C	D	E	A	B	C	D	E
4	D	E	A	B	C	D	E	A
5	E	A	B	C	D	E	A	B
6	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F

Each squad contained the same proportion of older and younger boys. As will be seen from the foregoing notices, each squad took its turn at all the duties. The boys had to do everything for themselves—make beds, clean up, cook, etc. The duties were so arranged that the squads were dependent upon each other for getting through their work efficiently and expeditiously. So lads with reputations for being lazy, unwilling, disobedient, resentful of any suggestion of being under authority, accepted the inevitable discipline of the camp organization, worked for the most part briskly and cheerfully, and submitted without protest to the 'orders' of their squad leader. The duties were essential, reasonable, justly apportioned, and consequently were carried out with unquestioning acquiescence.

(2) An almost Spartan attitude of indifference on the part of the Therapist and his assistant seemed to have the salutary effect of eliminating whimpering, complaining, grumbling and tale-telling. No overt sympathy was shown for the boy who was patently sorry for himself. The camp assistant had an inimitable way of blotting out self-pity by saying quietly as he tied a bit of lint on a wound—'Well, you know, it *does* get better', and his tone had just faintly in it something to flick the sufferer's pride and to make him decide to ignore the pain. A very helpful adjunct to the camp was the assistant : he maintained an unruffled calm on all occasions ; the boys could not perturb him—but he saw that what had to be done was done. The Therapist quietly established the principle that there need be no special mention of a job properly completed. Encouragement was given in more subtle ways—'*I'm asking you to do this because I know you'll do it properly.*' '*Oh, I told P . . . to do that. Ask him. He'll know all about it.*' '*But R I was depending on you to see to this.*' The tale-bearer found only deaf ears, a stoney unresponsiveness that indicated more surely than words could do that he must deal with the matter of complaint for himself. So rough corners of wilfulness, petulance, temper, greediness were smoothed away either by eliminating occasions for their recurrence or by the sheer experience that they were 'out of place' in a camp community.

(3) The week at camp was in no sense a holiday from 'treatment', and if one felt that even more might have been achieved in this direction, it had to be remembered how short was the time available, and that part of it had been devoted to the preparation for a 'Parents' Day', of which the boys themselves had done the honours. It had been established as routine that practice in relaxation was never neglected. After lunch and the subsequent washing and tidying up, the boys repaired to a grassy bank behind the hut and lay prone while the Therapist controlled their simple relaxation exercises. Fifteen minutes spent in controlled practice was followed by a period during which the boys themselves maintained the quietude and ease achieved, resting until they were called. The same

practice followed 'bedding down': then one saw the whole company bedded before daylight faded and being firmly and quietly put over to sleep by practice of relaxation; and so, boys who were reported to 'lie awake for hours' after being sent to bed, or known to be out 'at all hours of the night' were asleep and at ease long before night fell. Each boy had his own bed, and although sleeping accommodation was rather too congested quiet sleep was achieved.

Part of each afternoon was devoted to specific treatment of defect, or to some form of mental testing. While, again, the visitor might feel that more could have been done in this direction, a good deal was achieved in the way of getting to know the individual boy and his peculiarities: much more in fact was compassed in this direction than could have been possible in weeks of ordinary clinic treatment.

(4) Regularity in relaxation, and in sleeping soundly, was certainly a significant feature not only of camp routine but also of treatment. Of equal importance was the campaign for personal cleanliness. The boys came clean to each meal and to bed. Food was served with the utmost cleanliness, the contention being that there is no discipline more bracing than that of achieving cleanliness. Again, the camp arrangements were by no means ideal; the water supply was barely adequate, basins for washing could have been larger and more plentiful; latrines also were rather few in number. But in spite of such deficiencies an essential training was given and willingly accepted.

(5) The camp was held in a hut containing a pleasant central room that served as kitchen, dining-room, and at night, bunk-room for the smaller boys. In addition there were two bunk-rooms, and outside a wash-house. The hut was built on the crest of a hill commanding a magnificent view of hills and valley. What

appeal, it might be asked, does scenery make to 34 problem boys? One evening a rather dour stutterer of nine years spontaneously laid his hand within that of the writer and admonished a shouting comrade: 'Hush, Tiny! Don't talk! Look at the sky!' and truly, bathed in sunset light, the hill beyond seemed 'full of horses and chariots of fire'. Who shall deny that a week spent amid the beauty and peace of a lovely scene drew some of its adjusting power from the secret ministry of Nature?

(6) Apart from the beauty of the natural scene, the camp carried on in an atmosphere that is worthy of note. The experiment was possible because most of the boys were fortunate enough to be at school in Chesterfield under Dr. H. G. Stead, who as readers of *The New Era* know, has an unusually broad outlook, and a patience that is large and generous. His sympathy with the experiment was shown in his visits to the camp and perhaps more in the happy welcoming way in which the lads crowded to greet him and to chat with him. He made speech easy for them. The Speech Therapist, Mr. R. Keane, has caught something of his Director's vision, and with his assistant, Mr. J. Miles, was making the best of an opportunity that countless workers and teachers throughout the country will envy. It is interesting to note that Chesterfield's Speech Therapist is not only a specialist in the correction of speech defects but a trained teacher with experience of class teaching and clinical procedure. In the work of Child Guidance one very frequently observes that the class teacher who has given his knowledge of psychology a specific practical turn is peculiarly well qualified to give successful guidance to problem children.

The boys went home from this camp, helped certainly in the surmounting of their specific disability, but carrying away also, one felt, something more vital still.

The Cultivation of the Intellectual Conscience

P. J. Hartog

Director, International Institute, Examinations Enquiry.
Author of 'An Examination of Examinations', 'The Marks of Examiners', etc.

THE New Education Fellowship has appealed to its members at this time of crisis for contributions to *The New Era* bearing on its great objects in international education. The present article is written in response to that appeal.

In my title I have used the phrase 'intellectual conscience'. It needs some justification. As at present used in the intellectual field a 'conscientious' piece of work carries with it the idea that the work is devoid of any 'higher qualities'. I do not wish any such limitation to apply to the term 'intellectual conscience'. I am, again, aware of the many complexities which underlie the idea of the moral conscience. I have neither the competence nor the desire to analyse them here. But in spite of those complexities the man in the street uses the word conscience, and uses it *successfully*, to denote the 'something' which tells him, first, whether his own actions are 'right' or 'wrong', and, secondly, whether the actions of others are 'right' or 'wrong'. I believe that the word conscience can be used with equal advantage and with a like purpose in the intellectual field, and especially in the field of education.

Again, without going into the origin and nature of the moral conscience, discussed for centuries, it may be generally admitted that the more one's conscience is exercised, the more sensitive it becomes.¹ Similarly, the more what I call the 'intellectual conscience' is exercised, the sharper grows the distinction in our minds between 'right thinking' and 'wrong thinking'. It is singular how little attention has been given in the schools to this subject, which has been supposed to lie within the province of 'logic', and often an outmoded form of logic at that.

¹ 'Conscience is a very unjust retributer. The more a person habituates himself to virtue, the sharper is its sting.' Westermarck, *The Origin and Development of Moral Ideas*, 1st Edit., 1906 (Vol. I, pp. 15-16).

My own approach to the whole subject will be best explained by two quotations (I hope not over long) from a book on *The Writing of English*, which I published some thirty years ago, and of which a later edition has just gone out of print.² As will be seen, the purpose of the book is wider and more searching than the title at first sight suggests.

'In the teaching of the mother tongue, properly conceived, we have the most powerful instrument in the whole range of intellectual education, as it has been in this country the most neglected.

'The Socratic question and answer (and the textbook) lead the pupil, as it were, by the hand. In the silent dialogue of the person trying to express himself in writing, in the advance of the imagination and the making sure of each step by question and answer of the intellectual conscience, we have the method of the master put into use by the pupil himself.

'This subtle and delicate process, half-conscious, half-unconscious, I take to be the essential process of all composition. It is, I believe, capable of influencing more deeply than any other the whole working of the adolescent mind for good or for evil. But the radical defect, as it appears to me, of nearly all methods of teaching composition, from the earliest days to our own, lies in this—that for the exact fitting of the written words to an ideal conceived by the pupil, the teacher is apt to substitute an imperfect matching of the written production with a literary model; quite oblivious that the model, admirable as it might have been for its purpose, had in fact a purpose altogether different from that of the schoolboy exercise. Cicero, in ancient times, Burke in modern, spoke or wrote in dead earnest to bring home a particular conviction

² I hope to issue a fresh edition, perhaps with some modifications and additions, before long.

to a particular audience ; the schoolboy only tries feebly to imitate a Cicero or a Burke ; he has no object and no audience in view. To ask a pupil to imitate the results of a great master without providing him with the definite stimulus and aim which made those results possible, is indeed to set him to make bricks without straw. And so it has gone on for centuries. Hence the futilities of the rhetoric denounced by Locke [who killed the teaching of rhetoric in England], the futilities still living in that ridiculous imitation of great writing, the purposeless school-essay, set in almost every English school, asked for at almost every examination in English.

‘The question of the teaching of the mother tongue is part of an even wider question ; for the whole process of education, intellectual and moral, involves a delicate adjustment in a human society of the necessities for acting like others and those for acting differently from others . . . The problem of the teaching of the mother tongue is indissolubly bound up with questions of social conditions, national temperament, and national requirements.’

The chief points in the method I described were summarised as follows :

‘(1) You find that the average English child of from 10 to 13 can speak easily, forcibly, correctly, when he wants to say something. In order to develop his power of speaking and writing easily, forcibly, correctly, you make him want to say something.

‘(2) You make him want to say something of his own, something that he feels to be, and that is, worth saying, something on which he has a right to have an opinion. He is not repeating to you what you know already. He is observing external nature and his own sensations and recording his observations, and so doing in a modest way “original work”.

‘(3) In writing he is not merely writing vaguely as our schoolboys at present write essays on lofty themes for the world in general ; he is writing for a particular audience and with a particular object in view. But he should not, like a Steele or an Addison, try to improve the morals and manners of his time.

‘(4) In order to achieve his object, he must order his thoughts on a definite plan and present them clearly. The object in view

soon makes the schoolboy agree with Pascal and Buffon that orderly thinking is the very basis of style.

‘(5) His writing stimulates, as nothing else in the school curriculum can, the imagination of real things (to be sharply distinguished from the fairy story imagination) ; the picturing of consequences that forms the greater part of what we call “common sense”, and that serves as a guide for most of our actions in daily life.

‘(6) In order to write consistently and with an object strictly kept in view, a continuity of attention is demanded such as is demanded in no other subject but mathematics (or music when really well taught). Continuous exercise of the attention in reality implies supreme exercise of the will. Certainly concentration is one of the hardest lessons for a child to learn.

‘(7) Besides this power of concentration there is called into play a power which, borrowing from the science of the oculist, I may term the power of *mental accommodation*, the power of changing one’s mental focus, of seeing a composition first as a whole, in plan, and then in detail. “He that cannot contract the sight of his mind”, says Bacon, “as well as disperse and dilate it, wanteth a great faculty”.

‘(8) Finally—and I regard this as of fundamental importance—you make each child himself the judge of what he has done. He learns to work to satisfy not his teacher but himself. It is the business of the teacher and of the class to make the standard of satisfaction a high one. This is an ideal absolutely opposed to mediæval ideas. Authority has a place, and must have a large place in education ; its place has been hitherto, I believe, too large a one in English intellectual education for individual efficiency. In this particular work it is the child’s own judgment that must be made supreme. His original effort to produce is to be controlled and guided by self-criticism. The aim of the teacher is to cultivate what I have called the *intellectual conscience*.’

May I say at once that these principles were evolved not *a priori* but as the result of practice, first with a class of working men, and then with a class of children attached to the Training Department of Owens College, Manchester, and that I have since put them to the test with other classes—one a demonstration class on a

platform at County Hall before an audience of more than 100 teachers of the London County Council. In this article I have no space to give the examples from actual class-practice necessary, perhaps, to carry conviction to the teacher. Some examples I have given in the *Writing of English*. Others I hope to give in a continuation of that book. The method works.

I hope that I shall not seem to exaggerate when I say that I regard this method as an innovation in education not only of technique but of fundamental principle, in its aim of systematically stimulating together the creative and the critical faculties of the pupil, and of making him the ultimate judge of his own performance. If someone would suggest to me an appropriate name for the method (excluding the name of the author) I should be grateful.

At this moment, when propaganda, sound and unsound, are being used on a gigantic scale to move nations, the subject has attained an immediate importance that far exceeds the limits of the class-room.

It is absurd to ask children or untrained adults to criticise the classics; and the critical notes of classical texts are apt to teach them very little. But a person—child or adult—who has learnt to criticise first his own work, appreciating what is good in it as well as its faults, and then that of his comrades, not from the point of view of grammatical accuracy but of 'sense', is not slow to apply his critical powers to current books and newspapers—and with zest. He learns to discriminate between bunkum, flashiness, fallacies, and what is solid and sound; in a word, to judge what we may call the architecture of thought.

In discussing newspapers in *Mein Kampf*,¹ the arch-propagandist Hitler divides their readers into three classes—

- (1) those who believe what they read—by far the largest group;

- (2) those who have ceased to believe anything;

- (3) those with [good] heads who test what they read critically and then form their own judgment on it—by far the smallest group.

In what follows Hitler argues in effect that liberty of the press is absurd and that Government must control the people by newspapers written for the silly and credulous masses (*der Haufe der Einfältigen und Leichtgläubigen*).

Hitler postulates that the vast majority of people are silly and credulous. I am not disposed to accept that view expressed in so crude a form. The analysis of Hitler's influence on the German masses suffering from an inferiority-complex requires a more elaborate and searching explanation. But it is certainly true that the majority of Britons are neither silly nor credulous, and that British democracy could not survive if they were.

Recent advances in applied psychology have, as Bertrand Russell has pointed out, increased the powers of attack of Governments on the individual by means of propaganda. It is essential for democracy that the individual should be provided with increased powers of resistance against false propaganda from without, against his own weaknesses from within. Against such propaganda I believe the cultivation of the intellectual conscience to be the supreme safeguard.

NOTE.—For a broad treatment of the relation of teaching in the schools to social life, I wish to refer to the international inquiry on *Moral Instruction and Training in Schools* (Longmans, 2 vols., 1908), edited with a masterly introduction by Sir Michael Sadler; to *Training for Citizenship*, by Sir Ernest Simon and Eva M. Hubback (Oxford University Press, 1933); and to *Educating for Democracy*, a symposium edited by J. Cohen and R. M. W. Travers, in which the present writer has dealt at greater length with the subject of the foregoing article (Macmillan & Co., 1939). Questions of what I may call 'practical logic' have been dealt with recently in a valuable way by Dr. Thouless in his *Straight and Crooked Thinking*, and by Mr. R. W. Jepson in his *Clear Thinking* (Longmans, 1936).

I have also to express my gratitude to my friend, Dr. P. B. Ballard, for including a chapter on my method in his new book *Teaching and Testing English* (University of London Press).

¹ See *Mein Kampf* (24th edition, 1933), pp. 262-264.

Sigmund Freud : an appreciation

J. C. Hill

District Inspector, L.C.C.

PROFESSOR SIGMUND FREUD, who died last month at his home in Hampstead, made a unique contribution to our knowledge of the human mind. Although his first great work was written forty years ago it was not until after the last war that he was honoured by universities all over the world. His books were recently publicly burned by the Nazis and he had to leave his native land. It is a consoling thought that his last year of life was made happier by his friendly reception in England, and that despite a severe and painful illness he was able to complete his last great book in his English home.

Freud had an international reputation as a physiologist before he began to study psychology. He was, incidentally, the discoverer of cocaine. He was the first man to analyse dreams in a scientific way, and it was this discovery which helped him to understand and explain the mysteries of the unconscious mind.

The importance of his work for education is immense. Many of us who write books on education have obtained a reputation for brilliant original work on the strength of elaborating one or two details we learned from Freud. When well diluted many of his ideas are readily understood and accepted by parents and teachers. Few can digest the strong meat of his own writings without long research. Like many of the ideas in the Bible his views require experience of the tragedy of life before they can be understood. It is one of the criticisms made by his followers against academic psychologists that human suffering is never mentioned by them. Freud, in his later life, had more than his share of it. Nevertheless, he worked steadily to the end with enthusiasm for the truth, with limitless courage, humbly and with a sense of humour. He is one of the meek who shall inherit the earth.

Book Reviews

Analysis of Handwriting. *An Introduction into Scientific Graphology.* By H. J. Jacoby. (Allen & Unwin, 10/6.)

In this country, where much attention is given to individual education, it is surprising to find the subject of Graphology so largely neglected. The present volume sets out to supply this deficiency. The author's task has been arduous, since, as he says, no work on the subject has appeared in this country in the last ten years, he has had to reintroduce Graphology, and this has necessitated first removing all doubts of the genuineness of this science from the minds of sceptics, antagonized by their contacts with 'quack' graphologists. Mr. Jacoby has conducted his defence with broadmindedness and a strict regard for the limitations of his subject. He has next had to sum up the latest developments in scientific Graphology and has done so very competently in some 200 pages.

After dealing briefly in the first part of the book with the history and basis of Graphology, he notes in Part II the meaning of the various single characteristics in handwriting; the degree of legibility, of width, of regularity; the writing angle, directions and zones, spacing, pressure; forms and degree of connection and so forth. Part III deals with the application of Graphology, shows how a handwriting

is analysed, deals briefly with children's scribbles and vocational guidance through Graphology—an extremely interesting subject and one well worth the study of educationists—shows how Graphology can usefully be applied to business, to matrimony, to criminology, to historical research and its essential usefulness in psychotherapy. The illustrations which conclude the book are both very plentiful and excellently reproduced.

The chief usefulness of this book is that it constitutes an excellent introduction to Graphology as practised to-day, touching as it does on so many points and with its very good bibliography. Its chief defect lies in this very comprehensiveness; it is impossible, in so relatively few pages, to enlarge upon the most interesting points. For example, in Chapter 3—Directions and Zones—Mr. Jacoby says: 'I shall not attempt to explain this unconscious and collective notion of distinct regions as applied to mankind as well as to the universe. I can only state it as a fact which has its analogous expression in the distinct zones of handwriting and their significance which we deduced from the upward and downward direction of the movement'.

The question of the subconscious conception of zones is a most complicated and intriguing study and the book loses in ultimate conviction and interest through the lack of space to develop such

points as this. The writer's style also suffers through this cramping necessity to condense and sometimes becomes unduly pedagogical.

For those who wish for a wider understanding of their fellow-beings this book is, however, recommended, if only because it paves the way to such more constructive works as that of Minna Becker on Children's Handwriting or those of Anna Mendelsohn on the application of Graphology to Psychology.

E. I. Shanks

Sheltie, The Shetland Pony. By Allen W. Seaby. (A. & C. Black, 5/-.)

Khyberie in Burma. By Major C. M. Enriquez. (A. & C. Black, 5/-.)

The story of the piebald, eight hands high, is written in forthright and entertaining manner, for Mr. Seaby has no time to 'write down' to his readers. A Shetland tang pervades the early part of the book, for Sheltie was foaled in the most northerly of the islands from which she takes her name. The adventures of this plump little pony give the book a sturdy backbone, but much of the excitement is to be found in the author's skilful dispensing of information about the habits of birds, beasts and

fishes. The whimbrel is gone south to prove for worms in the mud; the peregrine stoops lordly down upon the ducks, seeking his breakfast; Sheltie takes no heed of the blue-grey mountain hare fleeing before the golden eagle.

The pony's travels which at last lead her southward, fall perhaps a little tame after such picturesque events, but it is nice to leave her, at the ripe age of three, walking proudly round the paddock with a tottering foal at her side. To be recommended, we think, for children of eight to twelve; the younger ones will find a story to enthrall them, and the older ones will appreciate, in addition, a harvest of information and some exciting new words for their increasing vocabulary.

Khyberie, the hill pony, already has many friends and gives his own somewhat literary account of his adventures in Burma. Observant and taking careful note of what goes on around him, he conjures up the atmosphere of the strange land of Burma and tells a very good story too. It makes good reading for girls and boys of ten to fourteen. The illustrations are well reproduced and enhance the attractions of a book which can be recommended for Christmas stockings.

J. Y. S.

Fellowship News

HEADQUARTERS

Those memorable first days of September, with the declaration of war and three air-raid scares, found Headquarters staff scattered to Somerset, Cambridgeshire, Surrey. Some were helping with the evacuation of children; others had undertaken national service. For a short while the work of Headquarters was carried on in Cambridge, thanks to the generous hospitality and help of Mrs. E. Hartree. Soon, however, those who were not engaged in particular tasks of national importance 'trickled' back to London, and a small emergency meeting was held to discuss plans.

It was decided to carry on, and a message was circulated to friends of the Fellowship, describing the position and possibilities as we saw them. The first step was to pool the resources of the International work, the English Section, and *The New Era*, which are functioning as a unit for the time being, with a much reduced (we avoid calling it 'skeleton') staff.

A very happy feature of the emergency was the demonstration it produced that we are really a Fellowship. The first to send us words of encouragement were, characteristically, two of the first three Directors of the N.E.F., Dr. Adolphe Ferrière and Dr. Elisabeth Rotten (Switzerland), who have been with us since the very beginning of our international organization. Our President, Dr. Beatrice Ensor, far away in South Africa, was also thinking of us and wrote at once with suggestions for the future—among others that the N.E.F. Headquarters should move to South Africa! On our return to London

International Headquarters, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

we found that our Chairman, Dr. Zilliacus, had arrived from Finland. And we have had letters from members in various places, expressing their satisfaction that we intend to carry on. Particularly gratifying has been the remembrance of us in these anxious days by our refugee friends; the thoughts of some who are now safe in the heart of America turned to us, and they wrote us kind messages, which we deeply appreciate.

FINANCE

However much we should prefer to devote space to more elevated topics, we are obliged to say a word or two about money. Organizations such as ours tend to lose some of their donations and subscriptions during wartime. They are apt, like a certain little island of the Ancient World, to be 'praised, but left to starve'. We would earnestly beg our members to make it a matter of conscience that the Fellowship shall be able to continue its work.

To meet the exigencies of the situation we are economising in every way possible. Not only have we reduced the number of our staff and also reduced the salaries of those who remain, but we find it necessary to let part of our office premises. We should be glad to hear from a kindred organization that may need office accommodation, furnished or unfurnished.

CONFERENCE IN U.S.A., 1940

At present there is no idea of abandoning the international N.E.F. Conference planned to meet

next summer in the United States. It is, of course, too early to estimate how many Europeans may be able to participate. From the point of view of the whole world, and perhaps especially from that of the belligerent countries, it is of vital importance that in countries which are neutral, and less profoundly disturbed in their social life by the war, there should be no slackening of the crusade to spread our ideals and make them the pattern of future society.

ENGLISH SECTION

The Organizing Secretary, Mr. Brereton, has received a commission in the army, and Miss Tod has taken up other work. For the present, therefore, the Section will depend very largely on the efforts of members and local groups, backed as fully as its resources allow by Headquarters. We very much hope that local groups will push ahead with their work and that where steps were being taken to start new groups, work will be begun this winter. Headquarters can offer the services of speakers, and *The New Era* will publish reports of group work.

The Chesterfield Group held a meeting on October 6th, at which Mr. V. Ogilvie spoke on 'The Social Implications of Progressive Education'. The Group has taken as the subject of its winter's work 'Progressive Education in Wartime'. It is to be tackled under five sub-headings: (i) Formal School Work in Existing Circumstances, (ii) Tradition, Custom and Progress To-day, (iii) A Curriculum for the Times, (iv) Guidance in the Use of Increased Leisure, (v) The Place of Free Activities in the Present Circumstances.

EDUCATION IN WARTIME

The exceptional circumstances in Great Britain, where thousands of children and their teachers have been evacuated from vulnerable areas, throw up a host of educational problems. It is to be hoped that teachers everywhere will, like the Chesterfield Group, give the fullest thought not only to their immediate practical solution, but also to the long-range profit that may be derived from them. We hope, through *The New Era*, to ventilate these problems and the possibilities they unfold, if those who are having first-hand experience of them will help us to do so. The Board of Education is assuming new responsibilities for the physical and social welfare of adolescents, and has set up a committee to advise it in this matter. At the same time the raising of the school-leaving age is being postponed, the schooling of evacuated children is declared on all hands to be inadequate, that of children in the evacuated areas is even more so, and both secondary and university education are suffering. There is widespread criticism of these deficiencies, as well as of the action of the Ministry of Information in sending posters and pamphlets direct to the schools: the Board of Education has always had the courtesy to communicate with the schools through the responsible Local Education Authorities. There is obviously a need for careful study by those on the spot of all the new problems—problems of organization,

administration, curriculum, psychology, leisure, family, etc.—and for full and open discussion of them. There is also need for the maximum vision and imagination at the top; it is to be hoped that the suggestion being currently put forward will be adopted, to set up without delay a strong educational advisory committee, representing all branches of education and powerful enough to help the Board to stand up to other departments, whose functions do not involve any concern for the maintenance of education.

FRANCE

We are glad to hear from the office of the French Section that they are carrying on. Their conception of the task before them is similar to that of the English Section, and they are also doing all they can to help evacuated teachers.

NEW HERRLINGEN SCHOOL

The many friends of New Herrlingen School will be glad to hear news of it at the present distressing juncture. There are 160 children who have no safe home to go to; many of them have their parents in Germany. The school has to provide them with home and security and a full, interesting life, and those who know the school can testify to its remarkable success in doing so. Twelve pupils took the School Certificate Examination this year, and all passed, some with very good credits. To draw the community closer together two wooden huts are being built to house those who had been scattered through lack of accommodation at Bunce Court. Since last January some had been enjoying the hospitality of the Borough of Faversham, which lent a house to the school. The community has also been strengthened by the growth of a colony around the school of parents of some of the teachers.

AUSTRALIA

The N.E.F. Conference in Australia in 1937 left a credit balance of £2,700, which the Australian Council for Educational Research set aside as a trust fund for the support of further conferences or summer schools. Steps have been taken to organize a series of summer schools in the various Australian capital cities, and possibly in New Zealand as well. Although they will cater mainly for teachers, it is suggested that there should also be some courses of a more general character which would appeal to farmers and other vocational groups.

West Australia

This Section has held regular meetings, many of which have dealt with various aspects of the problem of Education and Democracy. One address, given by Dr. K. S. Cunningham on 'Education and Leadership', is being printed as a pamphlet. A very successful course on 'Speech Training applied to Prose and Poetry Speaking', by Mr. J. K. Ewers, has also been published as a pamphlet; it led to a second course in which the principles discussed

were applied to the needs of different age-groups. Study groups have been at work on (i) Modern teaching procedure, (ii) Creative arts in the school, (iii) The Psychology of the pre-school child and the infant, (iv) The Psychology of the school child and the adolescent.

South Australia

Study circles have continued their work in the Section, and there have been regular meetings with addresses on a variety of subjects. One of the most interesting was a symposium on 'The Need for Teaching Modern Foreign Languages'—a problem whose setting is very different in Australia from what it is in countries which have close contact with neighbours of different speech. The four speakers dealt with French, German, Italian and Japanese. Committees of the Section are dealing with membership, publicity, programme, magazine, and broadcasting.

Mr. W. J. Adey, the first President of the Section, has retired from his position of Director of Education. His enthusiasm, caught at an N.E.F. Conference in England, and his practical assistance contributed greatly to the success of the Australian Conference and the vitality of its aftermath. We wish him all happiness in his retirement from official activities.

Tasmania

Earlier in the year the Hobart Group ran a series of meetings under the heading 'Education for Citizenship'. Among the topics discussed were: The Defence of the Democratic Ideal; Arts and Crafts; The Place of Technical Training; Everyone Needed—Overcoming Isolation, Physical and Psychological Handicaps; The Teacher I would choose for my Children; What other Countries are doing.

NEW ZEALAND

The N.E.F. Section and a number of other societies have deposited their collections of literature at the Central Public Library. They are thus available for the general public as well as for their own members. This is part of a scheme to make the Library the centre of the city's cultural activities. A lecture hall, with stage and projection room, have been added, the local musical societies are taking an interest in the scheme, there is to be a collection of gramophone records at the disposal of musicians, and there are collections of illustrative material on various subjects. When the building is completed it will provide approximately four times the floor space of the original library.

SOUTH AFRICA

Johannesburg

A discussion circle has been busy on the problems of Education for Citizenship. One of the particular problems in South Africa is racial, and an extremely interesting discussion followed an address given to the group by Professor T. J. Haarhoff. The more

a child was isolated, he maintained, the greater was the danger of encouraging biased generalizations about the race to which he did not belong. The only remedy was to bring the child into contact with the people about whom he might and often did make sweeping statements packed with prejudice. Experiments in bringing together English-speaking and Afrikaans-speaking children during holidays in one another's homes were showing that preconceived generalizations could be broken down.

The Johannesburg Group is co-operating with the Mental Hygiene Society in a campaign for a child guidance clinic.

Durban

The Group has found that a programme of lectures is not sufficient to maintain interest, and that more active work is required. The Group is now putting most of its energies into the organization of a support for the Tree Tops Nursery School, which was in danger of closing down.

Pietermaritzburg

The theme of the year's work has been 'Education for Democratic Citizenship', which has been discussed under the following headings: Fascist *versus* Democratic Citizenship; The Native View of Citizenship in a Democracy; An Economic Survey of South Africa; Fear in the Education of the Citizen; The Role of History and Geography; Education for the Politics of a Democracy; The Need for Clear Thinking.

Cape Town

In addition to the holding of general meetings, the Group is doing active constructive work on the following subjects: The Possibility of Children's Art Classes; The Stimulation of Interest in N.E.F. Activities by enlisting the help of the Press and Radio; The Use of Films as a means towards Educational Development; The Formation of a Mental Hygiene Section; National Physical Educational Development; Nursery Schools. The Group is also collaborating with the local Parent-Teacher Association and the Association of Trained Physical Culture Teachers.

Kimberley

Among meetings held was one devoted to a symposium on 'Modern Education'. Four papers were contributed: the parent's point of view, a defence of the traditional classical education, a discussion of the merits and defects of school education from the technical point of view, and a plea for more attention to the cultural aspect of education.

Bloemfontein

A subject which has been exercising this Group is the relation between parent and teacher, which, it is frankly admitted, is often one of uneasiness. The Group felt that a first step could be taken by

arranging a round table conference between parents, teachers and Education Department heads. These plans arose out of a lecture by Mrs. Verster, who reported on her visits to American schools. At one school, for instance, she found that chairs were provided along the classroom walls so that parents could watch the lessons in progress, and this was so much taken for granted that the children paid no attention to the entrance or exit of visitors.

Points from Letters

(1) 'Regret it is impossible to do more than "live" down here'.

(Headmistress of evacuated Junior School)

(2) . . . 'As it is I find myself in a receiving area. I have met evacuees with their teachers; some from London schools and some from extra-metropolitan districts. From what I hear, children in school parties are settling in very well in their billets, and are very adaptable. They have already started school. I wonder what they think of walking across meadows to a village school instead of asking policemen to help them across London's busy thoroughfares?

'I have got into touch with A.R.P. services in this district and have visited some of the mothers who were evacuated with their under-fives and who, in several cases, took their older children with them instead of allowing them to go with school parties.

'It seems certain that these cases are forming a much bigger problem. The process of learning to fit oneself into someone else's home; the feeling of restriction, keeping just to the bedroom with facilities for cooking in kitchen; the lack of the real work of one's own home, with father coming in at night; the strangeness of shopping in villages instead of meeting one's friends in the "High Street" or near "the stalls"—all these factors have made several, many in some instances, decide before they really tried out the new conditions, to go back to London where, it seemed, nothing had happened. I'm very sorry they have done so; I fear these will all desire to leave London again when raids come. They do not realize what the evacuation scheme meant, especially in transport. Some of them who are here and staying on seem very happy and very comfortable'.

(Recently retired Headmistress of a Junior School)

(3) 'Teachers who are still in London are having a strenuous time looking after the children who have not been evacuated. The schools cannot be re-opened, but the teachers are visiting the children in their homes and doing what they can to look after their health and education. Some of the older boys have already been getting into mischief, and these, unfortunately, are not the enthusiasts for voluntary education. The London County Council has appointed a committee to enquire if anything can be done for the children'.

(L.C.C. District Inspector)

Children's Drawings

A very comprehensive study of the drawings of children in Port Elizabeth, South Africa, has been sent to us by one of our members, Mr. W. J. C. du Plessis. It is an unpublished thesis presented to the University of Capetown, the experimental part of which was financially assisted by the S.A. Council for Educational and Social Research. We shall be glad to lend it to anyone interested.

(4) . . . 'The food here is no worse for the war, although the butter was a bit old a few days ago, but it always is, anyhow. We have got quite good trenches and have to keep warm clothes by our bedside at night. We have all been given A.R.P. instructions (written) and so we know fairly well what to do. Anyhow we get a premature air-raid warning, some time before the ordinary town warning. All lessons are the same and the scouts aren't doing anything special yet. I don't think any masters have gone to the war yet. There is a warden a few doors from us, but I don't know if he's anything to do with us. I think Mr. I. acts as warden, but he isn't really one. We have a senior boy for each trench, which has four boys in it. They are all numbered well (the trenches). We have got a good black-out and things are pretty well the same all round'.

(Public School Boy, aged 14, in Neutral Area)

(5) . . . 'Well, we had been told that we were to have two people, mother and child. They were expecting about 100 in the village, actually four arrived, a pregnant mother with one child of school age, and a mother with somebody else's child. We had the woman and somebody else's child. I must say they were both clean and we gave over the downstairs rooms to them. J. cooked for them, as the woman could not cook on oil. We asked her to keep her rooms clean, but she refused to use the carpet sweeper because it squeaked and would not use dust pan and brush as it meant going on her knees! She had to share the bed with the little boy, and she did not care about that either. We got along without any unpleasantness. The little boy was rather sweet, 6 years old, and tiny. He cried the first day and we tried to cheer him up. J. took him on her knee and tickled him to make him laugh. After a day or two he came haymaking with me. He drank quantities of milk, and after a day or two we persuaded him to eat fresh vegetables.

'The woman was bored stiff in the country and was horrified to hear that the nearest hairdresser was five miles away. She never had any intention of staying long, as she simply wanted to find her children and join them. She was the wife of a petty officer in the navy. . . . She was bored stiff sitting alone in the evening and we could not sit talking to her every evening. As it was, we had far more cooking, etc., to do, because they ate more

than we do ourselves. She paid us 1/- a day, and 5/- for the boy, at the end of the week. What with extra coal for the fire, for hot water, for extra baths, electric light, use of electric iron, syrup of figs for the boy (which I had bought in advance !), extra oil for cooking, and so on, it was not a paying concern ! Anyway, she found her children in a little village in Dorset . . . and has gone to join them. I drove her over.

'Other villages have been having a terrible time. In one village they had women and children from Bow or somewhere, they went to bed in their clothes and all the sheets had to be burnt afterwards. One woman was a drunkard, called everybody a blasted bitch, and was finally sent home—they could do nothing with her. In C. the women spend their time in the pubs, and at night parade up and down the street calling out, "Where are the bloody men, we want men" ! The people round here are furious. In H. some old woman of 70 had a mother and child and they messed in the bed. The woman was afraid to sleep at night because it was so quiet and went back the next day. The same thing happened at K. In M., whenever possible, they are in the pubs, and they have had to stop selling them bottles to take home as they threw the bottles about. The women here are afraid the London women will get off with their husbands and are getting ready to give them black eyes. One big house at T. had a dozen or so women ; they were looked after by the servants and they loathed it, and were bored stiff and said they were going home. Others are lazy and demand breakfast in bed. Altogether it is a pretty fiasco. The children alone are all right and so far as I have heard happy. It is the mothers who are upsetting everything. Anyway, all round here they are clearing back as fast as they came. Wherever you go you hear stories about evacuees. In fact, if you want to stir up trouble send town women to the country ! B. says she will go to prison rather than have anyone' !

(A Country Hostess, Wiltshire, 11-9-39)

(6) 'Now I wish to give you some information about war-time activities of the Women's Institutes movement which I think you should know about. As Secretary of our Institute I have just had a letter from the County Secretary (they always send round a monthly letter) which includes the following statement : "You will also receive in the course of a few days a letter from the National Federation (centred in London) giving us all a lead in our war-time plans, and drawing special attention to the Government's recognition of our Organisation and work." A letter has also been received stating that "Great importance is attached to the normal continuation of all classes and lectures however small the group. (Such classes, etc., are usually on cooking, needlework, drama, music, upholstery, etc.) It is essential that there should be a widespread understanding of the origin and cause of the war.

"The Citizens of this country must know why we are fighting and lectures are one of the best methods of achieving this."

'Well, I see that a Mrs. B. of Z. is arranging to talk on "What lies behind the War". Miss C., the old batty from whom we rented the Hall, is to speak on "Causes of the War".

'Well, I don't know what you will think, but I find all this very interesting and also worrying. You see the majority of the people at the top of the tree in the W.I. are diehards. The Government has always been very clever at recognizing the value of the W.I. Of course it is supposed to be a non-political body and up till now it has remained so to a large extent. But obviously the President, usually an influential person in the village, can use her "influence". What I want to know is, what are these old devils going to tell the women ? From what I know of them they will be all British and moral and God on our side, and so on. It seems to me that this work should be carried out by people really qualified to talk about such things, and progressive people at that. I think it would be a great mistake to underrate the importance of the W.I. Most villages have them, and if they are going to spread round distortion of facts by reactionaries it seems to me that a lot of harm may be done for the future. The young belong to these Institutes as well as the old. In many cases they are starting clubs for the evacuees (what are left) ; they will most likely be invited to such lectures, so you see what I mean ?

'A lot of education could be going on now but under present circumstances will it be the right sort ? There is a terrific dearth of good lecturers round here, and the trouble nearly always is, of course, expense. Not many Institutes can afford to pay more than ten shillings for a lecture, and the usual fee is five shillings or seven shillings and sixpence. Travelling expenses are also a problem. But, of course, with a little organisation, one could arrange to do a tour of villages in one locality at a time.'

(Countrywoman)

(7) 'Dear Mother, I just received your parcel and letter—thanks awfully ! You sent half of our household, almost. I and my dormitory particularly appreciated the sweets.

'There is no need to send any more stuff. I can do without weeklies all right. You wrote you were wondering if I was orderly here. I think that the warden regards me as a gleaming star of Prussian orderliness and neatness, as I am pretty well the only one in the hostel who polishes his shoes daily (*sic*), makes his bed regularly and washes more than twice a month. (I do not want to boast but I have got to give credit to your education !) ; the requirements to cleanliness, however, are very low here (expressed very mildly). I shan't tell you any particulars, otherwise you would call me home immediately. Still I am feeling very well here. You are far more independent than in a private house, after having finished eating, for instance, you can run away like "a sow from its sty". (I hope you do not mind this simily (*sic*).)

'Besides you have plenty of company here.

'My best friend at this particular place is a fascist, a red-haired Irishman, whose father is a colonel in the field force. I am going on excellently with him. So far he has told me that I was a valuable enrichment to England. Well! Well!

'Though I am feeling excellently here, I miss you ever so much. It would be wonderful if we could arrange to see each other, say at Xmas. Still that would be over 2 months yet. Anyway I hope for the best.'

(German refugee, aged 15, evacuated with his school)

Postscript

THIS copy of *The New Era* has been collected from contributors who might well have pleaded they were too busy to write. It contains accounts of people quietly doing things that might have seemed too difficult to undertake, and one or two constructive assessments of a state of affairs that might have seemed too bewildering to admit of assessment.

It also contains much material for anxious thought and prompt and strenuous action. What is being done about those parents and children who, because of their state of health and their personal habits, are found to be impossible guests for normal homes? The Ministry of Information says that some of them are being segregated in separate houses on their own. Are such houses more liberally supplied with hot water and soap than the ordinary, and is each of them in charge of some shiningly clean and cheerful person who will help her charges towards health and cleanliness? If not they must be unspeakably foul.

WHAT about the 'unbilleteable' children? Have the foster parents realized that any child—and many adults too—may lose even well established habits of bladder and bowel control under stress of fear and anxiety and strangeness? Schoolboys know it well enough. 'I didn't pump' is synonymous with 'I wasn't afraid'. But how many housewives, angry at the ruin of their bedding, have had the mother wit to see that any child turned out for being dirty will go on being 'dirty' in billet after billet until he finds security and peace?

And what about the unmanageable children? They need to be gathered into little commonwealths. Are we making full use of all our trained and gifted club-leaders for such work? Is every competent child psychologist, probation officer, and caterer-dietician already at work for them or are their names merely locked up in some register while they themselves do less important work or none at all?

What about the National Camps Corporation? Of their fifty camps we are told that 'the camp at Horseley's Green will be inhabited by physically defective children for whom the L.C.C. are responsible, and who are now in not very suitable billets, and it will be a week or two before other camps begin to be inhabited'. Miss McAllister shows us how one camp for stammerers has made for both happiness and cure, in spite of many theoretical objections to its chances of success. Are the National Camps going to be too big and cold to provide such communal therapy? Probably. But if so, could

not the same idea be worked out in smaller groups in already existing buildings?

THE school leaving age is another anxious problem. The Board of Education's first idea was to make either a year's further schooling or beneficial employment in the reception area compulsory at 14. This might have led to permanent settlement on the land for many urban children, apart from its many other advantages. But instead we are back to a school leaving age of 14, though this may be changed instantaneously by an Order in Council should it appear to be detrimental to the adolescents. We must see to it that such an order is made *before* harm is done.

Meanwhile large numbers of children in both evacuation and neutral areas are without schooling of any sort. Miss Betts' and Miss Selley's articles should be read carefully. The case of the 14-18 year-old is even more serious—we hope to collect evidence as to what is and what is not being done for them in the next issue. Both the Government and the L.C.C. have commissions already working on the problem and it is evident that great harm will be done unless this near-adult section of the community is wisely and generously catered for.

It is unusual for *The New Era* to neglect the question of the pre-school and nursery child. This issue contains no account of the work of the National Day Nurseries Association which has evacuated hundreds of under-fives without their mothers, and which, in spite of endless practical problems, has had no child removed from its care and brought back to the danger zone.

IN fairness to the Ministry of Health and the Board of Education it should be pointed out that, were the evacuation areas under constant aerial bombardment at this moment, less would be heard of the inadequacies of their plans. But they, as we, have been enabled by this breathing space to realize that the health of the child, both physical and mental, and his education, both intellectual and spiritual and social, are even more important now than in normal times—and are not being fully catered for.

We have now a very difficult and unusual chance of doing more for children than we have ever dreamed of doing before. No hiding up of troubles and no flag-wagging for victory will save us, but a steady determination that, because the children are our only sure inheritance, they must receive true 'priority'. So only can the next peace be better than the last.—ED.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Evacuation : Problems and Opportunities

Ruth Thomas

Education Psychologist to the Central Association for Mental Welfare

A MOTHER summed up the evacuation situation for me when she said 'It's the chance of a lifetime, Miss'. I agreed, though we didn't altogether mean the same thing. She thought of it as an opportunity for the only holiday she had had in ten years, took it, and is now home again. I had been thinking what a chance for the sociologist and educationist! Human nature, in hosts and evacuees, has proved to be a very mixed bag. It is perhaps a blessing that it has not been possible to stifle its less savoury exhalations by official foresight. Now that the cat is out of the bag—for a bewildered mentality and mixed metaphors abide with one in the weeks of evacuation—what amount of permanent social and educational achievement we might snatch as a result. It seems to me that as things are working, with the aid of the positive goodwill of the immediate crisis and the imperative need to bring order out of comparative confusion and preserve for both hosts and evacuees something of the peculiar—and not always compatible—standards and needs of each, we might accomplish unawares in a niggling opportunist fashion, distinctly unspectacular but real, a little that has been on the idealist's books for a long time—and might easily have stayed there longer.

Now, after six weeks, I am still uncertain

which has scored most points, this mother's type of opportunism or mine, but I shall try to give a fair summary of both sides.

Adult Evacuation

In the region of adult evacuation (mothers with children and expectant mothers) the social reformer lost heavily; a conservative estimate places eighty per cent. of evacuees in this class now back at home. The plan left out of account the financial difficulties of maintaining two homes, the prolonged mild character of the war on the civil front, masculine housewifery, and the fundamentals of married human nature.

The situation while it lasted, though, had many human touches and is still producing some fruitful efforts by communities to supplement its shortcomings. Voluntary workers took empty houses in their own names and sublet to evacuees, so that for the purposes of the monetary grant they could maintain their evacuee status, and large families of six and seven children whom the mothers very naturally refused to separate in billets have thus been enabled to remain together. Some of these families are likely to stay where evacuation placed them for the duration of the war.

The experiment of camping several families in village halls was naturally defeated by the

domestic, sanitation and heating problems, and by our national antipathy to anything like communal living when all Mr. Butlin's allurements are so conspicuously lacking. Some overpersuasive agency in the evacuating areas seems to have led many of the mothers to an amazingly general expectation of the Butlin camp life, and receiving officers everywhere were asking heatedly for a quiet five minutes with the originators of the delusion.

Community Centres

But while they stayed the evacuated mothers woke the communities to a need that the social reformer has been hammering at for years, of some kind of community centre where they could get together for the kind of work which is drudgery alone and for their own brand of recreational activity. The primary need was for washing, ironing and mending centres to supplement the overburdened accommodation of the billets. School and church halls under women's voluntary associations were rapidly commissioned for the purpose. I took a snapshot of one of these working and a mother asked me to give her a copy—'for my old man, me with an electric iron!' Some of the centres that remain have taken on the laundry and mending of the evacuated school population, becoming centres for war work and providing settings for some good slapstick entertainment—rehearsed and unrehearsed. I wish they could be extended to include more direct instruction—in housewifery, and above all in some very practical child psychology. The nucleus is there because the mothers bring their babies and hand them over to a voluntary worker for the afternoon. The younger ones sleep on little canvas beds made by the visiting senior boys' schools and the older ones play under nursery supervision. The mothers discuss their children and would often be glad of a lead in understanding them. I am reminded of the struggles out of which community centres such as the Cambridge one and the Peckham Health Centre have emerged. It is strange that war has achieved what the acute peace-time isolation of village women and the inert boredom of their city counterparts could not do, at least, in so widespread a fashion. It will be a test of the wisdom of the

voluntary associations, to what extent they can withdraw from active organization, and a sign of the wisdom of the mothers if they can make their centres more than foreign bodies in the native communities.

Co-operative effort has not thus been without success in providing a homely refuge for women who by reason of the undoubted awkwardness of the situation, often at first wandered the streets with their babies between meals rather than intrude in billets—and help has not stopped short at providing them with multitudes of prams! I have still, however, to meet some solution for the town wife who wants a 'quick one' and finds the village inn is not the rendezvous of the village woman, or for the native husband faced with recriminations in his endeavours to be sociable to two women in one house.

Evacuation of the Children

As a worker with children I am not inclined to minimise the psychological effects of taking large numbers of children away from their parents under crisis conditions, no matter how skilfully done. The immediate responsibility lies, however, with the war, and the ultimate responsibility is therefore too hard to assess. Moreover, there are compensations. Many of the children are actually thriving physically under better conditions of locality and atmosphere and some under social and economic conditions they had no hope of enjoying otherwise. They have shown also a naive and lovely appreciation of new phenomena. I recall two urchins turning from the wrapt inspection of a wet spider web to hear and then mimic a bird's call, dissolving their intense wonder in a moment's horseplay and then turning to listen again.

De Gustibus

The shock, if there was one, in evacuation, was borne largely by the foster parents. Their charges have torn a hole in the pleasant scale of middle-class values and jolted the inert equilibrium of centuries of village domesticity. If I could gloat—after six weeks 'hard' on evacuation—it would be over the impudent assurance with which the slum-bred infant has maintained his preference for chips and for sleeping in his trousers or *under* beds, in

face of the horrified expostulation of a whole populace. He is a hardy brat and I am in hopes that the efforts to feed and clothe him on eight shillings a week may create so uncomfortable an awareness of the problems of his parent as may stagger the efforts of the trade unions.

I know that poverty and hygiene are not inseparable, and I am saddened that this remark was brought so bitterly to the lips of foster parents in the early days of evacuation. But the differences between host and child are not always as simple as the hygiene question. I have been deeply exercised in my scale of moral and social values when country mothers have complained, 'e don't know nothing, 'e don't know 'ow to peel 'is egg', or 'e don't be used to sit to 'is supper', and the vexed question of clothing is not always a simple one of warmth and hygiene. Many mothers like their little girls in short satin skirts and socklets, and others (and their children) are shocked at the expanse of bare leg and evident knicker, and in the more placid intervals of evacuation I have thought that wars have been waged before this one for the freedom to maintain such incidental differences as these. If one half of the world is beginning now to know how the other half lives—which is a different thing from knowing merely the adage—it remains to be seen whether it can become just as widely understood that crowded apartment houses in dirty congested areas, poor wages and unemployment have had their share in shaping these different standards, and for these the responsibility lies far from the door of the city parent. If it does this, surely we are in the throes of a social revolution.

The B.B.C. has played a useful part in explaining people to each other. I should like now to hear a broadcast on evening occupations for children for an older generation to whom the town-bred child's indifference to books and table games is a matter of some misgiving—all about finding him a corner to cut and paste pictures and model with cardboard and paint and the possibilities of a couple of chairs and some string for trains, horses and ambulances. Likewise the possibilities of a cardboard box in which to hoard possessions—bits of wood, a few conkers, some

silver paper or a picture—anything to stake a claim in the new home.

Problem Children

Of the many thousands of children who have adjusted without a semblance of a crisis it is natural that one should think and hear less. Teachers and voluntary helpers have been tireless in rebilleting to remedy misfits, inevitable when first billets were only completed in the late hours of the night of arrival.

There are in existence tribunals where a board of teachers, J.P.'s and billeting officers can hear and resolve some of the difficulties of hosts and evacuees, but less formal methods are having more success. Some small percentage of children are proving unbilletable and the Ministry of Health is taking special houses for these children throughout the country, staffed and supervised by a motherly matron.

I have a play centre for twelve boys in one of them—half the children are between six and eight, and the other half between twelve and fourteen and a half. In the younger group Bobbie Number One sucks his thumb, turns in his toes and lets out a day-long disconsolate howl for his mother. He couldn't put a shoe on when he arrived, and like all my younger group wets and soils his bed frequently. He refuses everything but sago. Bobbie Number Two and Arthur savagely destroy anything they touch and were well on the way to destroying each other when they came to us. Arthur can only be quieted by being sung to. The older group is the nucleus of a remand home—all of them stealers, some with police court records, one of them inventive to the point of mechanical genius, all of them 'fighters'. We are giving them here an opportunity to dominate materials, not people, destroy as a prelude to making, success in work and a surety that they can rely on our help as a prelude we hope to relying on each other. It is, however, the problems who drift home most easily, and some misgiving is felt about the incidence of these homes when, if ever, the evacuated population becomes stable. The present system of allowing their establishment by local government officers, each in his own area, means in practice that homes exist in close proximity under neighbouring officials,

where single homes for larger areas would be more economical and less liable to be emptied by the drift of population.

Medical supervision is at present inadequate. The urgent need is for the supervision of a mental health specialist such as a psychiatric social worker or a psychologist. Numbers in the homes have been added to unnecessarily by children on remand from juvenile courts, who have not always been notified to the receiving authorities and should undoubtedly have been so. But the enuretic or bedwetter is in an undoubted majority. It is not possible to segregate all these children, and foster mothers would welcome a visiting social worker to direct them in the management of such problems as cannot certainly be dealt with by rationed drinks and stern admonishment. There is need of observation to determine how much is due to poor habit training, how much to infantility of long standing, or directly due to the present upheaval, and there is great need where clinics do not exist of therapeutic play centres, in contact when possible with psychiatric advice. At present local officials of varying status and enlightenment have shouldered the responsibilities of billeting officers. Directors of education, district clerks and sanitary inspectors, uncertain of their aim in these establishments, often place together untractable parents, sick and maladjusted children. In the majority of cases, quarantine (not observation, treatment and eventual rebilleting) is in process.

Mental and monetary economy could be effected by employing the services of trained mental health workers, each serving one of the Government civil defence regions and engaged in transferring children to a central home in the area and advising on its conduct and arranging treatment. Ideally she should be in contact with the services of a psychiatrist, who could be peripatetic and serve even larger regions. In the same way mothers and children billeted for special reasons in 'homes' could be congregated from larger areas and their special needs best met by being unfused with other types of difficulty.

Local authorities are at present on their mettle to prevent the wastage of expenditure consequent on the return home of additions to

the already estimated proportion ten to fifteen per cent. of the evacuated school population. The Ministry of Health has announced the possibility of evacuating children under five without their parents and the establishment of nursery camps. Where trained supervision under nursery organizations is not available, the services of such a mental health worker as has been envisaged would be available to add supervision here, to her work with the homes for difficult children, and home-visiting to direct foster parents who are up against problems requiring expert knowledge.

Returning Home

The return home of evacuated children is rarely consequent on their own discomfort. It would not be untrue to say that the children have shown themselves more necessary to their parents than the parents to them. One woman to whom I made protest when an undoubtedly happy child was going back home, said to me, 'You see, Miss, 'is father won't eat. He's gone right off his meals.'

Well-intentioned foster parents often make grievous mistakes in proclaiming too loudly that the children are happy. 'Perhaps she can do as well for 'im as I can—but after all, Miss, she ain't 'is mother'—the unanswerable last maternal word.

Parents too are beset with fears of 'losing' their children to the better standards of some of the foster homes. I heard a foster parent saying good-bye to the visiting mother of one of her charges. 'You know we don't want your child to be any different from what you would want yourself', she said. The reply was 'Well, it's good of you—but she's speakin' different already, you know', and that parent was really envious of her neighbour's child, billeted in the gardener's cottage of the same house.

To meet the small and large jealousies which have arisen, some areas are setting aside meeting rooms where visiting mothers may have their billeted children to themselves and entertain them to picnic meals prepared by youthful voluntary helpers, in company with their own neighbours and their children. In evacuation it doesn't help to rail at human nature. You must meet it half way.

The Schooling Problem

Schooling is proceeding on the 'shift' system, with some uncertainty as to whether it is better for each 'school' to meet on alternate days or on alternate half days. The latter scheme is complicated where older native children travel long distances with visiting younger ones from the same homes. It frequently means that one of the pair has to wait about for the other, so that they can return together. The problem for the householders of providing double lots of meals is also not a small one. In Junior schools, too, as a result of the more vigorous activities of a morning spent out of school, the children are finding concentration in the afternoons impossible and teachers are gradually adopting the former alternative.

In more settled areas church halls have been loaned and full time schooling is often in progress. In other areas full time schooling proceeds with two and even three teachers in one class room. Visiting infant schools being smaller in numbers, have often been able to amalgamate satisfactorily with local ones and smaller classes are thus possible. Some rural areas are expressing satisfaction at the possibility of a total reorganization as a result of amalgamation. Where it was necessary previously for one teacher to take several age groups, with the double staff consequent on evacuation more classes and a more homogeneous classification have been achieved. In all cases the visiting schools have unprecedentedly small classes, and at least one contributing cause of backwardness should now be removed. Educationally backward rural areas staffed with untrained teachers are also achieving contact with up-to-date teachers from highly fortunate areas with undoubted benefit.

Organization has been further complicated when in outspread rural districts children have had to be billeted over an area which defies daily travel. Teachers are here attempting to set up small units in cottage rooms to teach all ages which are within reach of this centre, and we are having a return to the organization of the small country school which some of us so appreciated and were regretful to see superseded. If, as seems likely, city teachers are required to return home in numbers to

meet the needs of their unevacuated charges, this system must spread. Homogeneous classes will give place to small groups of wide age range under single teachers. Unhappily they will be new to the skilled organization this type of teaching requires and will undoubtedly welcome some help such as could be given by an advisory teacher travelling over a whole area, as to methods of employing six-year-olds in active occupations, while teaching a second group and supervising the silent work of a third.

The Board of Education's admirable little pamphlet 'Schooling in an emergency', is now the evacuated teacher's bible. Its suggestions for the setting up of gardens and the pursuit of beekeeping and poultry raising in addition to the freedom it gives to teachers to take a now unlimited number of local excursions—geographical, historical, or natural history—on the other half of the day shifts, could mean a realistic revolution in educational method. Opportunities for regional survey, the study of civic lay-out and visits to factories and workshops were never so easily come by. Given a sand pit (say ten feet by six), set up under a rough roof and large enough for a small class to congregate round, and a load of builder's surplus wood ends—towns could be planned on modern lines. Bad lay-outs could be modelled and discussed, the mysteries and difficulties of by-passing as well as endless geographical features could be planned. But the teachers need advice and would welcome lecture courses by competent people to help them to grasp their opportunity, and these too would serve as social occasions, which are woefully lacking for these strangers in a strange land.

Voluntary organizations are helping manfully to employ the children after school hours and in the week-ends by the establishment of play centres. Some helpers are experienced in the work. Others do not yet know the distinction between amusing children and helping them to get active recreation in a play room. All would welcome some kind of informal recognition on the part of local educational officers of their work, and some degree of co-ordination. What better than a conference with the local authority and an invitation to hear and exchange ideas with

an experienced play expert from amongst the voluntary workers or from another source? As it is, centres are overlapping and a mass of work is being begun which later proves to have such hitches as early co-ordination could have avoided.

In conclusion, I think authorities in all spheres of the work would welcome some pronouncement on the future of the boy or girl of almost school-leaving age now evacuated. It seems unsound to send him home matriculated for war risk at the attainment of his school majority. If local work is not forthcoming what is to be his future?

Here are a multitude of confused impressions of problems and opportunities from myself

and other workers in the field. If we err in being oversympathetic with the evacuee, you will remember that we also live with one eye on the homeliness and private idiosyncrasy of our own houses which we no longer inhabit, and will make allowances. One other confession. Opportunities, as I have said, abound. I am not sure though that when Christmas, which is a homing season, has passed, that it will leave us much of a field for social regeneration and experiment amongst the evacuated population. They may have melted away less ostentatiously than they arrived. Even in that case I do not think my opportunism will have been entirely defeated by that of the mother whom I began this article by quoting.

Projects for Evacuated Teachers

Edith B. Warr

Headmistress, High March, Beaconsfield.
Author of 'The New Era in the Junior School'

How many teachers from town schools now find themselves removed from their usual surroundings, with perhaps insufficient accommodation and equipment! It has taken the first few weeks of the term to recover from the upheaval and to get settled down in the new surroundings, and now is the time to see how the best use can be made of circumstances thrust upon us.

There is freedom for the time being from examination restrictions, so advantage of this may be taken to widen the scope of education. Perhaps an account of the work undertaken by a group of girls who came from London to work with us may be of help to those teachers who realize that the country offers scope for many interesting projects, but who do not know just where to begin. Last year between 20 and 30 girls of 8-11, with two members of the staff, came down to Beaconsfield one day a week to join in a project with a Group at High March. The School was full, and there was no available class room; so trestle tables were hired and put up in the gymnasium, where the writing up of records, etc., was done, although, of course, the majority of the work took place out of doors.

We arranged a study of the district, chiefly

from a geographical point of view, but there were innumerable channels of interest which might have been opened up if time had allowed. The children began by taking walks in each direction from the School armed with a field notebook, a compass, and a small map of the actual section they were studying.¹ The children found their direction, set the map, and marked the course of the walk. This gave excellent practice in following a map, and they were always interested in comparing the actual shape of the wood as they could see it, with the shape on the map, or in walking along a ridge which showed on the map the 400 ft. contour line. A walk of an hour or an hour and a half was followed up by a Group lesson, or by writing a description of the walk and colouring the maps to put in a book kept for the purpose. When a general knowledge of the district had been gained in this way the following studies were undertaken:

- (a) *Geology of the District.* This was studied by visits to a gravel pit, a chalk pit, and a railway cutting. The children began to collect fossils, and there was material

¹ These maps can easily be hectographed from the 6" Ordnance Survey, and only essential things should be marked, e.g. the School, the chief roads and woods, and one or two contour lines if the district is hilly.

for weeks of work both for Group lessons and for individual research.

- (b) *A visit to a Cherry Orchard.* Here we found the cherry grower himself most helpful. He told us the amount paid for each basket of cherries sent to market ; the average yield of the trees ; the cost of ladders, and of labour for picking and bird scaring. So there were long sums on our return to find the profit to be made on a pound of cherries.
- (c) *A visit to a Farm.* An inventory was made of farm stock and implements. Here again the farmer gave us a great deal of help, and answered many questions about preparing the ground, rotation of crops, etc. A rough plan of the farm was made during the visit, and a plan to scale was done at School by the older children.
- (d) *Local Industries.* Visits were paid to a paper mill, and to a small pottery.
- (e) *The Study of Transport.* One day we went to the cross roads on the London-Oxford Road and took a traffic census. Groups stood at different points and watched the traffic from one direction, putting down the relative number of buses, cars, horse-drawn vehicles, etc., that passed in a quarter of an hour. The train and bus services were studied so that a good idea of the transport of passengers and goods between Beaconsfield, London and the neighbouring towns was gained.
- (f) *Simple Map Making.* This was tried by some of the children from the top of a hill which overlooked a wood, a farm, and the railway. We took a piece of string, a chain in length, and working on squared paper attempted to get some kind of scale. The younger children simply marked positions of things they saw by means of symbols.

The Groups always met together before the walks and general points of the study to be undertaken were talked over. We found the most satisfactory method was to give each child a hectographed list of points for observation :

- (1) Notice the crops growing in the fields we pass.

- (2) We are walking through a dry valley. Mark this on your map.
- (3) See if you can find any flints.
- (4) Notice the kind of soil on the banks of the road through the cutting.
- (5) What are the chief types of trees growing in the wood through which we pass ?
- (6) What is growing under the trees ?
- (7) What is the height above sea-level of the highest and lowest places visited ?
- (8) Notice (a) the clouds, and (b) the direction of the wind.

When there is plenty of time to spare, twenty such points could be given either to be copied down or taken at dictation by the children themselves. In this way the children are kept alert and interested during the walks, and they have plenty of material for their own record books.

It is perhaps not very practical to suggest outdoor work just as the winter is coming on, but experience has shown that there are many days in the winter when one can be out, and if it is only possible to fit in two or three walks in the week the observations will give material for hours of work indoors. Limited space and equipment will make it necessary to keep to simple forms of practical work in connexion with the projects undertaken, but with some sheets of plain paper and brown or stiff paper for covers, the children can make their own record books ; or with younger children larger books can be made from the contributions of various members. The County Libraries are always glad to supply books of reference, and the Town or Urban District Council Offices can usually help. We found the local Estate Agent willing to supply us with outline road maps which were most useful.

I would urge teachers to take the country people into their confidence and thereby gain first-hand information, for it is the people carrying on the actual work who know the details likely to appeal to the children. For this purpose we chatted with a farm labourer who was ploughing his field after taking up mangolds, and he gave a most interesting talk on the growing of cattle fodder. There may be things that the children can do in return, so that the valuable lesson of interdependence of all members of the community may be learnt.

The study of environmental geography is not the only course open to those who want to work out some special investigation, although it provides an excellent beginning for children of all ages. Those who feel that they should not break away from their normal syllabus in the teaching of geography to children over 11, are surprised to find how much more real the study of the earth's surface can be when it has begun with an informal chat in the chalk pit about the formation of the chalk, and why it should be found in humps and pits in the middle of Buckinghamshire—or anywhere else. Or again, how much more real the characteristics and outlook of people far away appear when once the requirements and work of the neighbourhood and its relation to the outside world is understood. It will readily be seen that an environmental study of this kind will give rise to all kinds of work. The arithmetic done in connexion with the profit—or the loss!—to be made on farm produce, the sale of milk and eggs; the cost of fencing a field; calculation of the area of fields or gardens; realizing the length of a chain or pole for a definite purpose, will be real arithmetic.

If there is no building of particular interest in the vicinity, the village inn or the Church may form the basis for some interesting historical study. It is all the more valuable if teacher and children start on their investigations together. Apart from Church Records, which are often historically interesting, much may be learnt from the architecture. Or if the actual buildings do not offer much scope, such a line of enquiry as the reasons for the directions of the roads and place names may be undertaken.

A group of eight-year-olds once made Windsor Castle a centre of interest for a term. They made rough sketches of the towers during their visit, and from these made a large floor model partly of cardboard and partly of wood. The history of the various towers and the story of the Knights of the Garter covered a good deal of English History; the digging of the 'Thames' from the plan made during the visit, and the construction of river craft kept the children busy for most of their outdoor time that term. A visit to any buildings in

the neighbourhood may be developed on much the same lines, and when once it is launched an enthusiastic teacher will find herself carried along by the children's resourcefulness and initiative, which is as it should be.

Work in nature study more readily suggests itself in the country, especially at this time of year with such a wealth of material at hand. One of the most satisfactory studies I have undertaken with girls of 13 and 14 was a term's study of a chalky field (an outcrop of the Chilterns) and a small beechwood. There were about twenty-six in the Group and they worked in pairs, each on a small section of the area, making observations week by week on the changes in the trees and flowers, and notes on the insect life. I have no special knowledge of Nature Study, and so could not answer all their questions on the spot, and we had to bring specimens back to the Nature Room and search together through reference books. We may have missed things that an expert would have been able to point out, but we did gain a great deal from the work, and I am sure that much in that way could be done at all seasons. The younger children will do more practical work in Nature Study such as leaf prints (scribble prints with chalk on brown paper; smoke prints, and blue prints if the paper can be obtained). Bark rubbing with cobbler's wax, to compare the barks of different kinds of trees is an absorbing occupation for children living in wooded country.

Village grocers are still able to sell box wood for a few pence, and this can be put to so many uses—the making of bird tables, feeding trays, nesting boxes, insect breeding cages, etc., to be used during the winter or in the spring, or for a Nature Corner in the improvised classroom.

Some of the children are sure to find sheep's wool clinging to barbed wire. Why not go out collecting it, wash, dry, and try to spin it? We have experimented with dyeing with onions, curly kale, blackberries and roots.

It is impossible to make any definite or detailed plans for projects that might be undertaken, for conditions will vary so much, but these few sketchy suggestions may help teachers to take advantage of the district in which they find themselves, and to plan with their children a course of study for the autumn.

Play Activities for Children

1. The essence of play is to amuse oneself, not to be amused by outside agencies. Therefore the true function of a play-centre is to furnish children, not with ready-made amusement in the form of complete toys, or people who will suggest, organize, and lead their play, but with the raw materials of play, materials which are satisfying to use, suggestive of possibilities within their powers of manipulation, yet absorbing all their attention.

Thus in play creative effort is often called forth, but play is also relaxation, *e.g.* relief from the intellectual process of learning found in the emotional satisfaction of handling some material or repeating some activity. Therefore the play-centre must prepare for a rhythm of creation and repetition, effort and relaxation, activity and quiescence.

2. Application of these principles :

Choice of Equipment.—Not too many mechanical toys (although all these have a certain value in the joy of winding and listening to the noise). Mechanical toys are best regarded, however, from the point of view of what the child will do with them, *e.g.* improvise a train to tie behind an engine. Thus the value of a Hornby train set to older boys lies in its stimulus to construct a complete railway system, with improvisations of stations, etc., on the way. In choosing such things, therefore, do not provide all the parts.

Think in terms of satisfying activities and their appropriate materials, *e.g.* loading and pulling : boxes and cart.

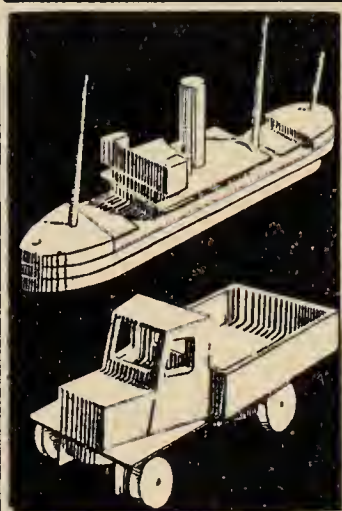
Allow for the activities of cleaning, tidying, and sorting, which can be all part of the play to children and often involve movement they enjoy. Dustpans, brooms, dusters, furniture polish and rag as well as boxes of all sorts are essential.

Provide plenty of materials for improvisation—boxes, cardboard, wood blocks of all sizes, old bits of wood, string, matchboxes, spools, round carton tops, dressing-up bits, especially varieties of hats, coloured and brown paper, etc. Most of these are waste materials, yet they are almost more important than toys. Collect anything which suggests a use or adaptation by its shape or other peculiarity.

Arrangement of Room.—Group allied materials in different parts of the room, keeping to accustomed places. It is important to have a quiet spot which is best behind a piece of furniture or screen, but in any case is a place where noisy activities do not go on. Books, puzzles, etc., can be put here, but the important thing is the place of retirement. Keep materials sorted in boxes, set out in the same place so that children can find what they want for themselves and, if possible, let children store away in cupboards at the end.

Function of Grown-ups.—Apart from definitely organized parts, *e.g.* beginning or end, music, games, etc., don't start in with the idea that you are there to do something and so had better get going as actively as possible. The functions of the grown-up are relative passive, to be an interested and co-operative friend. But you can help by

- (a) seeing that different groups or individuals find space and material for their chosen play and that each recognizes the claims of others.
- (b) helping anyone who appeals to you over some difficulty of manipulation, etc., *e.g.* tying a knot. If you sit quietly for a while till the children have forgotten you are new, they will begin to appeal to you quite spontaneously.
- (c) offering your help if you see that a satisfactory end cannot be reached without it, or by making a suggestion if you see some further possibility in the play or in the material already chosen which you feel would give further enjoyment. Such intervention must be pursued with caution and probably should not be attempted very much until you really know the



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children. The danger is always that you may push them on to what you would like them to be doing. The grown-up has to be ready to stimulate to further creation or exploration, whilst always allowing for the swing back to quiescence when the child has satisfied his creative impulse sufficiently.

For wise suggestions as to the ways in which the grown-up partner can help children at play see *The Children's Play Centre*, by D. E. M. Gardner.

Activities and Materials for Different Ages

UNDER FIVE

Activities

Climbing, sliding, rocking.

Riding, pushing, pulling, wheeling, connected with loading.

Hammering, mending, constructing, building (e.g. aeroplane from bits of wood, train from wooden blocks).

Shaping, kneading, modelling (e.g. animals, people, food to eat), arranging, pattern making.

Matching and varieties of sense training activities also manipulating, cutting out.

Water-play.

Sweeping, dusting, polishing.

Painting, i.e. colour washes, patterns, and finally pictures.

Sand tray play, especially building fantasy worlds with small things.

Materials

Nursery slide, cupboard slide, rocking horse, climbing frame, swing.

Large wheeled toys, e.g. carts, pram, wheelbarrows, engines, boxes or anything else to load up, pedalcars, trikes.

Hammerpegs, nailpegs, nail mosaics, wooden hammers, apparatus with pegs and holes, large nails, odd pieces of wood, workshop bench, or at least old kitchen table to work on for simple repairs.

Dough of flour and salt mixture (two-thirds flour to one-third salt—thick dough), bright decorative objects, spatulas, rolling board and rolling pin.

Matching games, e.g. bits of stuff of different colour and texture, nest of boxes, posting box, simple jigsaws, picture trays, wooden fitting-trains, wooden big beads, anything interesting to work (e.g. egg-whisk), blunt-ended scissors, coloured paper.

Bath with water, boats, water-toys, sponge, bottles, jars, funnels (for pouring), watering can, rubber or mackintosh aprons (old bits will do), rubber tubing, measuring jars.

Small broom, dustpan, dusters and rags, tins with remnants of furniture or metal polish.

Large amount of cheap paper (e.g. kitchen) so that large pieces can be used, powder paints, pots for mixing paint and water beforehand, big paint brushes, easels, big crayons.

At least one big and one little sand tray, all kinds of small animals, houses, people, farmyard toys, motors, and any other small things with small boxes to keep them sorted in.

Activities

Imaginative play, e.g. acting, trains, shop, tea-party, imitating grown-ups like the milkman, postman, etc.

Beginnings of big co-operative enterprises, e.g. building shop, house, train, ship big enough to play inside.

Running about, movement to music, singing games, band.

Constructive.

Play with dolls.

FIVE TO SEVEN

Climbing, sliding, swinging.

Riding, pulling, wheeling, loading.

Mixing, kneading, shaping, modelling, e.g. collections of animals or people.

Painting—pictures of home, school, playing, etc. Cutting out, cut out pictures, friezes for the playroom, painting scenery for play (e.g. forest for 'Robin Hood'), painting costumes, e.g. on paper or calico, stage properties, curtains, furniture, or other constructed things.

Water-play.

Sand-tray play for building imaginary worlds with small models.

Sweeping, dusting, polishing.

Hammering (especially knocking boxes to pieces) mending (try all possible repairs), constructing, building, e.g. aeroplane, carts, trains, boats, doll's furniture, especially beds from wood or cardboard boxes, or 3-ply wood, cradle from basket or fruit crate.

This leads to larger scale co-operative construction, e.g. doll's house of boxes piled up, furnished with matchbox furniture, mats, curtains, bedclothes, etc., or railway station, aerodrome, etc., constructed on floor, or large sized house to live in from clothes-horse, or shop.

Play with constructional material.

Imaginative play, e.g. house including cooking, washing, tea-party, playing with dolls, acting grown-up people, e.g. train guard, postman, policeman, sailor, teacher.

Leading to dressing-up and acting remoter people and stories which they hear or read, e.g. fairy tales, nursery rhymes, Red Indian, or Robin Hood tales, Peter Pan, Black Sambo, Snow White, Three Bears, etc.

Materials

Suggestive hats, coloured paper accessories and bits of stuff for dressing up, wooden boxes for ship or train, doll's tea set.

Actual furniture of room, tables, chairs, etc., clothes-horse, boxes, cardboard, brown paper, paint, etc.

Balls, drums, and percussion toys.

Large wooden bricks, plasticine.

Dolls (to dress and undress), doll's beds, prams, furniture, a screen playhouse, bath tub for dolls.

Climbing frames, slides, swings, see-saws.

As above. Stout wooden boxes make good carts. See the wheels are firmly fastened on.

As above.

As above. Also coloured paper, blunt-ended scissors, calico, brown paper, etc.

As above.

As above, especially larger trays, *e.g.* bakers' trays and large variety of model toys.

As above.

As above. Nails of different sizes, small saw, fret-saw for older ones, 3-ply wood, wooden boxes and old bits, especially round bits for wheels, spools, and round carton tops, sandpaper, cardboard especially corrugated, cardboard rolls for funnels, matchboxes and other boxes, pieces of material, paper clips, paint and big brushes, clothes-horse and dust sheets, building blocks of all sizes or rough blocks to be sandpapered and painted.

Matador, Picabrix, Meccano, Screwso.

Equipment for playing at house, *e.g.* clothes-horse or Wendy house, furniture (boxes will do), tea-set, washing apparatus, cooking apparatus, dolls (preferably *large*, unbreakable, serviceable), doll's beds (largish), pram. Characteristic hats, aprons, accessories, *e.g.* whistle for guard.

Dressing-up box from which children can find what they like. Skirts, old pyjama legs, pieces of stuff for cloaks and trains, odd hats, coloured handkerchiefs, feathers, and anything else suggestive or funny will do; also crown, sword, horn, sticks, and other properties. Calico, sacking, cardboard, brown paper and coloured, to make costumes, dish cloths for ring mail.

Activities

Dressing dolls, making dolls, e.g. wire and tissue paper, making glove puppets (head of plasticine over paper with layers of pasted tissue paper on top, painted for face, hair of wool glued on, neck a cardboard tube in which finger is inserted, simple magyar dress attached to neck). Conversations between Punch and Judy, Red Riding Hood and Wolf, people in the street, etc., are suitable, and often arise spontaneously after puppets are made.

Quiet activities in quiet corner. (These children are able to do jig-saws with more numerous and smaller pieces.)

Running about activities, games, rhythmic, songs, and singing games, percussion band.

Interest in writing, reading, and number.

SEVEN TO ELEVEN**Movement.**

Shaping, modelling, as above, e.g. animals, people, simple clay pots. Painting pictures, decorating room, painting scenery, costumes, curtains for play, furniture, as above—also patterning with potato prints, etc.

Composing imaginary worlds with sand-tray and model things.

Mending, constructing, building, ideas as above but carried out with more complicated construction. Also animals cut out with fret-saw and painted, easy jig-saw cutting, toys from various waste materials, a puppet theatre from boxes.

Co-operative construction, ideas as above, also railway system with rails, trains, etc.

Imaginative play, dressing-up, acting, as above. Also play-making from stories told, e.g. 'Cavemen', 'Robinson Crusoe', 'Hiawatha', etc.

Dressing dolls, making dolls from variety of materials, making glove puppets and simplest string puppets.

Ballad plays, 'Beowulf and Grendel', fairy tales, etc., can be acted with puppets.

Quiet activities.

ELEVEN TO FOURTEEN**Clay modelling.**

Painting, pattern-printing, e.g. with potatoes or lino-cuts, decorating room, etc.

Making Toys to give to younger children, e.g. wooden toys, dolls from waste materials, doll's furniture, especially dolls' beds and bedclothes, doll-dressing, fretwork, animals, jig-saws.

N.B.—Toys can well be made large.

Strung puppets, masks (papier-mache foundation clay or plasticine over tissue paper layers and

Materials

Dolls, pieces of material, coloured paper, wire, tissue paper, wool, plasticine, paint.

Picture books, illustrated catalogues for cutting out, jigsaws blunt-ended scissors, paste, books for making scrap-books.

Quoits, balls, balloons, trikes.

Printing sets, wooden letters and numerals.

Skates, scooters, trikes, kites, balls, climbing frames, swings, model aeroplanes.

As above.

Large sand tray and models as above or larger space in garden for bigger scale ideas.

As above, especially fret-saws and 3-ply, glue, paint, etc.

As above.

As above.

As above. Beads, paper beads, wire and tissue paper, monkey nuts, chestnuts, etc., can be used for making little dolls.

Picture books, stories, jig-saws, games, puzzles, pictures to cut out, scissors, paste, books to make scrap-books.

Clay (must be kept damp in tins).

As above. Potatoes, lino, special cutting knives, special printing paint, calico or other material.

3-ply wood, odd pieces of wood, wire, chestnuts, monkey nuts, etc., pieces of stuff, dolls, illustrated toy catalogues for ideas, paint, glue, fret-saws, etc.

Activities

Materials

modelled for features, vaseline over muslin pressed in to take features, tissue paper layers, taken off the foundation, left to dry painted).

Animal heads, witches, clowns, any characters with exaggerated features make good masks. Can be used for acting.

Co-operative enterprises, e.g. decorating and furnishing room, railway system, puppet theatre, model town, etc., laid out on floor.

Acting—charades, set plays, dramatizations, e.g. 'Treasure Island', 'Alice in Wonderland', ballads like 'Lochinvar', 'Wraggle Taggle Gypsies', etc.

Quiet activities, e.g. books, games, puzzles.

Organized games, rhythmic, dancing, singing, pipe making.

Meccano, Hornby trains, etc.

[This material was prepared by Marjorie Reeves with the collaboration of Susan Isaacs and Paul Abbatt. Reprints may be obtained from V. Ogilvie, New Education Fellowship, 29 Tavistock Square, W.C.1, at 2d. each, 3d. with postage.—ED.]

Evacuation : The Receiving End

From a Correspondent

WHILE it would be wrong to magnify the difficulties that have arisen over the education of the evacuated children, it would be stupid to pretend that everything has gone smoothly in the reception areas. Evacuation from the provincial cities seems to have worked more happily, but it was obvious from the first that, as far as the London evacuation was concerned, there would be problems to tax the most resourceful of officials in the rural areas. There were two principal snags: the first was the complete inability of the Transport Authorities to say where any particular party of children—or of adults either, for that matter—would ultimately fetch up. But even had information on that point been complete, the other snag would still have been stultifying in its effect.

To the L.C.C., and less excusably to the Board of Education officials in London, the rural areas are *terra incognita*. There can be no other explanation of the repeated injunction that evacuated schools should 'retain their identity'. In the rural areas of Surrey, or Hertfordshire, of Kent or South Essex, it *might* have been possible to accommodate, as a unit, a London School of 400 to 1,200 children; in the really rural areas the idea is quite fantastic. The Village School in the country

may have three classrooms, which in more prosperous days accommodated 40 children each: more often it has two rooms, or even only one. In one county, with 500 schools and a school population of just under 40,000, there are only about eight school buildings with an accommodation of 400 or more, and another eight or ten that could take about 200 children each. Since in this same county there are about 16,000 evacuated children, probably from about fifty or sixty schools in the metropolitan area (apart from a considerable number of unofficial evacuees) it is obviously a vain hope that any large evacuated school could keep, or regain, its identity. Even if there were school places available within an area so neatly circumstanced that one Head Teacher could supervise and control 300 to 400 children, even if the school's identity were not already lost because about one-third to one-half of its members had never been evacuated or had returned; even if it were a sound move to concentrate children, where possible, in such numbers that they could only be educated half a day at a time in shifts—there would still be the enormous problem of rebilleting.

The evacuated children were not much wanted from the first. When their reluctant,

but patriotic, hosts welcomed them, their enthusiasm was set back by the discovery that many of them were dirty and ill-clad. For a ridiculously small sum they fed these children better than many of them had been fed before; they cleaned them up and began to teach them the elements of simple good manners; as the weeks went by, and their appeals to the children's parents went unanswered, they clothed and shod them. They completely disorganized their households in order to make them comfortable, and by now they are beginning to grow really attached to them. To uproot them at this stage for any purpose would be something of an affront to these foster-parents; but to uproot them in the interests of a theory which has little to support it but the vanity of various urban Head Teachers and Education Committees seems incredible folly.

If the visitors would forget their dignity and endeavour to blend with the local school, the benefit to both would be enormous. In the first place all the children would be under honest supervision all day. It would be idle to pretend that the 'shift system' is anything but a second-rate expedient. Schooling for half a day, or for every other day, would be admirable if, in the 'off sessions' the sun always shone and the children were always under some kind of supervision. Unfortunately, it rains fairly often in rural England, and farm visits, nature rambles, and gardening are heavy going for town children in light shoes when there are inches of mud on the ground. And, unfortunately, there are teachers—local or evacuated—who will do as little as possible for children unless there is some compulsion upon them, and it is difficult to compel them to do anything out of school.

Secondly, all the children would have some use of school buildings. They may be inferior to the spacious schools of Greater London; it may be necessary for two or more teachers to share a room; the furniture and equipment may be scarce and makeshift; but, if there is anything in tradition, the school buildings will in most cases be better designed for educational purposes than the roomiest village hall or the most palatial private house, and children are very quick to react to this kind of atmosphere.

Thirdly, both sets of children and of teachers

must surely gain by the daily contact with their fellows. If evacuation has done nothing else of value, it has shaken the inferiority complex of the rural teacher. He—or, more often, she—had dreaded the influx of these urban children because of the theory that they were so much 'better' than the rural children. Over and over again the rural teacher—even the humble Supplementary—has found that London children know about as much, or as little, read as well, or as ill, as her own children of the same age. It has been a revelation and an encouraging one. There are few urban children after all who cannot fitly be placed in classes with children of their own age in the village schools, and the advantages to both are inestimable. We have for generations deplored the growing rift between town and country. The countryman has despaired of the townsman's ever seeing his point of view; the townsman has dismissed the countryman as slow, stupid, and conservative. Here is the opportunity to tackle these combined misunderstandings at their most profitable stage, in the minds of the children, and we are asked to throw it away in order to safeguard a theory, to keep, or regain, a shadow.

Is it fantastic to see in all this the workings of the Teachers' Associations? Wise people may know something precise of the relations between these Associations and the Central authorities in London. Most of us must be content with recalling the emphasis on professional dignity which most properly characterizes the policy of these Associations in peace time. The evacuated teachers have done much noble work; they have left their homes, sometimes their families, suddenly and in very difficult circumstances; they are in a strange land, a long way from home and all familiar things; they may have the responsibility of their charges for many more hours a day than they had at home. In face of all this it seems churlish to criticize them. But many a rural Director of Education knows that, over and over again, this question of their professional pride has been an obstacle to smooth working. No doubt there have been country teachers who have taken a high hand, who have tried to domineer, who have, to say the least, been wanting in tact. No doubt

Directors of Education in the rural areas have occasionally given instructions which a Headmaster of a city school has regarded as derogatory to his professional pride. But it is difficult to be patient all the time with a man who insists, at regular intervals, that he is paid to teach children from his own school and not shire children ; and there is some excuse for a rural Headmistress who takes a high hand when an evacuated assistant declines to take instructions from any but her own Head, or her own Local Authority.

Contact with many of the evacuated teachers themselves is refreshing. Left alone, they would be eager and unselfish ; very many of them still are, despite the weekly exhortations of their organisations to stand firm and resist this dastardly attempt to rob them of their status. Teachers are, as the world knows, eminently sensible as individuals ; they know, for example, that one thing which will make for the success of evacuation is a settled and happy child population, and that the achievement of this aim is of more importance, in the end, than the retention of a school's identity or a teacher's dignity. Directors of Education, too, are not wholly insane. They know that in some cases the happy settlement of the children can best be achieved by leaving an evacuated unit alone with its own teachers. The sensible teachers and the wise administrators might be trusted to arrive at the happiest solution *for the children* in the majority of cases ; the professional issues might surely be forgotten for a time.

There is much more that might be said, but this is the most important factor in this novel situation, because it is fundamental. Many children did come down in a dirty state, but they came in a great hurry, and in any case there were more clean ones than dirty ones, only the dirty ones had a better press. The Women's Voluntary Service gave in this, as in many other difficulties, invaluable assistance. Many children are proving difficult in their strange surroundings, but there are teachers and others in the country experienced in dealing with difficult children. The financial knots will need a lot of disentangling, and the rural areas seem in danger in getting the worst of the deal in the long run, but that is a problem

mainly for administrators. It is the human and educational factors that are, for us, the most important.

The personal equation will be solved if there is no factious propaganda to prevent its solution. Already, in face of the Board's and the Associations' advice, thousands of evacuated Head Teachers have thrown in their lot with their rural colleagues ; the children are combined and classified as a unit, the teaching staff pooled, the two Heads working as a team. Even where the numbers have made 'hiring' inevitable, there are many villages where the town and the country children and teachers are working together in complete harmony. There are even evacuated Heads who, with the support of their Authority, have freely sent surplus Scale IV assistants to help a neighbouring Head Teacher out of a difficulty in the absence of a Scale II Supplementary teacher. There is, in short, plenty of goodwill among the teachers.

Educationally, the experiment is too young yet to justify any conclusions. Those who feared that town and country would not mix in our schools have been surprised ; those who hoped for a complete and beneficial fusion have been mildly disappointed. The rural activities for town children, most excellent on paper, have not yet come to much ; the weather broke too soon. Perhaps the only thing that can be asserted with confidence is that hundreds of teachers (and presumably thousands of children) have discovered from grim experience that education is not, after all, solely a matter of palatial buildings, costly text-books, and blackboards.

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Adolescents in Lancashire

Dr. C. W. W. Read

IN Lancashire, in making a survey of human problems of any kind, the factor which must always be borne in mind is the great concentration of population in the industrial and manufacturing areas on the one hand, and the many miles of hill and moorland stretching from just north of the town of Preston, right up to and including part of the Lake District, where only tiny villages and remote farmsteads are to be found. With this in mind it is easy to understand the discrepancy of opportunity provided for adolescents in town and country. In the country much of the work must of necessity be done by voluntary organizations such as the Federation of Women's Institutes, some branches of which admit junior members, Girls' Friendly Societies, Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, and the various clubs and societies connected with the Churches.

Small-town and Country Adolescents

But there must be many boys and girls who are too isolated to come into contact with any of these. To such, the wireless is almost the only means of contact with the world outside their remote country home and one's only regret is that so much of the fare provided is the result of the townsman's attitude and does little to enable boys and girls to realize the possibilities and joys of country life and to counteract the destructive urge towards the towns. One service provided by the Lancashire Authority which must be an inestimable boon to country dwellers, is the very efficient travelling library service which collects and delivers books, visiting the remotest districts where no branch of the County Library can be established. That this service is fully used and appreciated is testified by the figures given regularly in the reports of the Library Committee.

In the great industrial towns, Boys' Clubs, Scouts and Guides and all kindred societies flourish and have overflowing memberships, but a detailed survey of the position reveals that in the smaller towns and villages these

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societies are non-existent or, save for a few cases, in a failing condition. The chief reason for this is the lack of adequate leadership, and, I would add, the slower application of the social conscience to the less obvious case for social welfare work. To me this is a point which deserves wider recognition than it has been hitherto accorded. When an urge to rescue humanity from social evil or from a life of unrelieved poverty manifests itself as positive action, the poorer districts of the great cities are the first objectives which present themselves to those in search of a sphere of activity. The need there is obvious and a good choice from the point of view of advertising and propagating the aims of the society, but to my mind the smaller town presents an equally good field for work. Here the drabness and monotony of life are unrelieved by the glamour and excitement of a large town, where even back-street life never achieves the unrelieved greyness of the life of the poor in the small town. Those who have ever been acquainted with such towns whether they be in Lancashire or elsewhere must feel, on reflection, that here the crusade for clubs and societies for the adolescent boy or girl should be the strongest.

Contact between Town and Country

One of Lancashire's finest possessions from the point of view of providing good leisure-hour occupation for the adolescent is the many miles of lovely country which lie to the north of the River Ribble. Here are open moorlands, beautiful wooded valleys, trout and salmon rivers, and endless country roads which are a continual source of surprise and delight to those whose first conception of Lancashire is that of a county of tall mill chimneys, mean streets, and hurrying streams of workpeople. The members of the younger generation are not slow to take advantage of what Nature has provided for them and every fine week-end throughout the summer months hikers and cycling clubs leave behind the drab background of their workaday life and, with the

natural exuberance of the Lancashire character expressed in the variety and colourfulness of their costume, invade the countryside and enjoy to the utmost the freshness and freedom of utterly different surroundings. The country folk make themselves busy catering for the needs of the thirsty wayfarers and almost every cottage and farmhouse displays the sign 'pots of tea'. This in itself affords a means of contact between the two halves of Lancashire life and must to some extent modify the outlook of each. The social and health value of this week-end exodus to the young people cannot be over-estimated.¹

So much for the social side of the problem and the less formal education of the adolescent. In referring to some of the aspects of more formal education it is not proposed to deal with the familiar facilities provided in Secondary Schools nor those provided in Junior Technical Schools since these are well known and in Lancashire do not differ to any marked degree from similar provision elsewhere. There are in this County however several examples of a type of school the nature of which will not perhaps be familiar to many of the readers of this Journal, at any rate to those whose experience of schools lies outside that associated with highly industrialized areas. I refer to the Day Continuation School.

Needs of the Adolescent in Industry

In the majority of cases when a boy or girl leaves school at the age of 14 and enters industry he or she cuts adrift entirely from all formal education and apart from the development of latent interests by contact with the outside world, not always by any means desirable contacts, the young mind is left with little or no guidance and often the adolescent sinks into the abyss of the monotonous mechanical modern world. Certain enlightened employers with large enough resources have foreseen this danger and by continuing the education of the young recruit to their particular works have sought to break this

monotony and give the employee a new outlook.

The idea of training for a particular craft by apprenticeship is as old as the crafts themselves, but this relatively modern movement for continuing the education beyond the primary school stage is designed not only to produce skilled and better craftsmen but to produce what is even more important—better men and women. This is the chief motive behind the actions of the responsible authorities in those factories that have introduced educational schemes for their employees and founded Day Continuation Schools.

Day Continuation Schools

The relative merits of vocational and non-vocational training have been and still are the subject of much difference of opinion as may be seen from the Spens Report. It is not proposed to enter into a discussion on this matter here, but every teacher will know how much more ready is the pupils' response when the teaching material used is related to their direct interests whether this be their work or other aspects of everyday experience.

Generally speaking, in this area at any rate the curriculum of the Day Continuation School has been made as broad as possible with the greatest stress on the non-vocational or cultural subjects.

The success of this type of school depends to a very large extent on the co-operation between the factory authorities and the local education authority. In the Lancashire County Area all the Day Continuation Schools are supported by the Education Authority and the very happy relations that exist between the interests concerned have contributed in no small measure to their success.

Leyland Motors and Metropolitan Vickers

One noteworthy example of a successful Day Continuation School in this area is that at the Leyland Motor Works which serves the Company's factories at Leyland, Farington and Chorley.

This school is attended for one day of eight hours weekly by all apprentices, boy clerks and most of the boy labourers employed at one or other of the works. The school has recently removed from wooden huts, in which it has

¹ These brief notes on the opportunities for the development of the social instincts of the adolescent must be regarded as in the nature of observations of conditions and factors rather than an account of work accomplished by particular societies, the more detailed records of whose activities may be found in their respective annual reports and other publications.

been housed since its inception, to new permanent premises provided by the firm at a cost of approximately £9,000—the teaching staff is provided by the Lancashire Education Committee. Attendance begins immediately the new employee is engaged by the firm and ceases at about the age of 17½ years. Boys attending the day school are also expected to attend evening class on at least one evening each week during the winter session. During the first two years the curriculum is non-vocational but in the third year the course is given an engineering bias. The new premises which are adjacent to the playing fields include classrooms for general subjects, one classroom for the teaching of drawing, science laboratory, engineering workshop, and large gymnasium. The school pays considerable attention to the physical as well as the mental development of its students. In addition to the physical training and organized games periods during the ordinary school hours, particular attention is paid to out of school activities. From May to October visits are paid each Friday evening to the swimming baths at Lytham St. Annes for the purpose of instruction, and cricket and football teams are run during the appropriate season. For a number of years the school has run a holiday camp during August and there is great competition for a place in the camp.

Another 'works' school of a different type also receiving assistance from the Lancashire Education Authority is that at the engineering works of Metropolitan Vickers, Trafford Park. This school offers educational facilities to the works' young employees, both boys and girls, through Day Technical Classes in draughtsmanship, shorthand and typewriting and general commercial subjects and in addition has an excellent gym for physical training.

A very interesting recent development in connection with the education of the adolescent has been the request by the Manchester Collieries Company for the Lancashire Education Authority to establish Day Continuation Schools at some of the County Technical Schools in order to provide educational facilities for their juvenile employees working at pits in the Lancashire County Area. The Education Committee readily responded to this request and arrangements have been made

whereby the young employees just entering the colliery attend at County Technical Colleges for one whole day a week for the purpose of continuing their education. The subjects taught are strictly non-vocational and as far as possible continue from the point at which the subjects were reached at the Primary School.

Lancashire's Utilitarian Outlook

Those not fortunate enough to be employed in industrial concerns where they are freed for educational purposes during working hours can find opportunities of continuing their education and improving their technical skill by attending one of the Evening Technical Schools or Evening Institutes of which there are over 350 in the County Area.

It is an interesting side light on the Lancashire character that the classes receiving most support are those which provide training where success leads to material advancement. The Lancastrian is essentially a pragmatist and uses those opportunities of education by which he is most likely to improve his worldly status.

Much more could be written on other organisations and societies within the County area which cannot be classed definitely under one or other of the sections mentioned in the opening paragraph, most especially of the Clubs of the National Federation of Young Farmers which in normal times are in a highly flourishing state in this area, but it is hoped that in this short article some new thoughts and aspects have been presented of the problems of the adolescent in Lancashire and the methods by which voluntary organisations and the County Education Authority have sought to solve them.

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Local Authorities and the Youth Problem

BEFORE the war there were well over a quarter of a million students at L.C.C. evening classes ; and of this number about 25 per cent. were adolescents. This forms a large percentage of the adolescents who are in contact with any sort of youth organization inside the county area ; and it is satisfactory to note that the number has been steadily increasing during the last few years.

Those attending evening classes can roughly be divided into two categories : the largest number are to be found in the men's junior and women's institutes, or are provided with evening classes at the clubs or other youth organizations which they are already attending. These constitute the non-vocational group. The others are attending vocational courses at polytechnics, or at senior or junior commercial and technical institutes.

The non-vocational institutes have been enabled to widen their basis of instruction very considerably during the last few years, and this has greatly increased their popularity. Many of their activities are entirely recreational, the L.C.C. having taken advantage of the latest regulations in regard to recreational institutes. Had it not been for the interruption caused by the war, many new developments of an experimental nature would have been found in London institutes, especially on the new housing estates. But a beginning has already been made, and enough has been accomplished to prove that it is along those lines that the future of the non-vocational institutes, especially for the adolescents, will develop. The social side of those institutes catering for youth is generally strongly marked ; Saturday night dances and socials are popular, and teams for swimming and outdoor games compete against each other and with the clubs. Hobbies of all kinds are encouraged ; wood-work and metal-work have a great appeal for lads who are attracted by little else, and travel talks with slides or films are popular. With the girls, needlework, cooking, laundry-

work, singing, acting and fancy dancing are favourites. A great deal of physical education is, of course, found in all non-vocational institutes for adolescents. But this aspect of continuative education was, in the opinion of many educationists, tending to be over-emphasized before the war. It was considered that many young people, boys as well as girls, are physically too weary after a day's work, longer than young people should ever be called on to undertake, to benefit by strenuous physical exercises. Now that the National Fitness Council has become a war casualty, it may be hoped that this particular hobby-horse will be ridden with a more balanced seat in future. Too great an emphasis on the physical aspect of education, under existing social conditions, may be actually harmful. The hope for a fit nation does not lie in more hours spent in the gymnasium, but in less hours spent in the workshop, and more hours being spent in bed, under conditions which make sleep possible ; and the benefits of an occasional week-end camp can never compensate for the evils of an insufficient diet during the rest of the year.

Vocational institutes, both commercial and technical, consist of group courses, when a regular attendance at specified classes is compulsory. This occasionally causes perturbation in the youth organizations, because the brightest boys and girls, who are naturally those wishing to take advantage of vocational courses, are often those upon whom the organizations most depend for teams and other activities. Perhaps youth leaders do not always realize the advantage it is to young workers to pursue these courses of study, or how often a rise in wages, or actual promotion, follows the passing of the examination at the end of the course. To speak frankly, there has probably been a certain amount of antagonism to evening institutes as a whole, and to the work that the L.C.C. is doing for adolescents, engendered by this competition for the best of

the school-leavers, who really need the vocational training which only the local authority can efficiently and cheaply supply. There are far too many school-leavers who never come in contact with any form of post-school club or education to justify this rivalry; the majority of youth leaders are now realizing the enormous need for their work in this field, and are making gallant efforts to widen their nets and draw in those hitherto untouched.

An increasing number of youth leaders are realizing that an unadulterated programme of darts and ping-pong, dancing and popular songs, is an insufficient diet for the rising generation, and are taking full advantage of the professional teachers provided by the L.C.C. For many boys and girls the atmosphere of a club is more suitable than that of an institute, and this co-operation of youth organization and local authority is a happy welding of voluntary work and public finance which will certainly develop even further during war-time when so many club leaders have had to undertake other national duties.

It is a healthy sign that there has been so much concern for the welfare of youth from the very beginning of the war. It had been previously contemplated that evening institutes would be closed in London for the duration of the war, but it was immediately apparent that, because of the black-out, juvenile unemployment, and other conditions, it was essential that they should be opened. There have been many material difficulties, such as providing adequate air-raid shelters and darkening the rooms, but an increasing number are being opened each week, and they will all be opened, in some suitable building, almost immediately. It is a delightful experience, in the gloom of present-day London, to visit an institute full of young people, and to see the atmosphere of normality inside these darkened buildings, and the way these boys and girls disregard the perils of the dark streets which cause tremors to many of the older generation. The evening institutes have a big part to play in preserving the normality of young people during the difficult days ahead—as have all youth organizations; but there is little doubt that the experience, the wisdom, and the sympathy of those in charge will surmount difficulties

to-day as they have surmounted difficulties of a different kind and degree in the past.

But the L.C.C. also provides day-time education for the post-school child. There were, before the war, over 6,000 boys and girls in day continuation schools. These are the remnants benefiting to-day in London from the great imaginative educational reform of the last war. The history of the day continuation schools is a sad one; and their failure to achieve their purpose is undoubtedly one of the fundamental causes of the youth problems which are worrying social workers, educationists, and some of the more enlightened politicians to-day. Those who visit day continuation schools cannot fail to be struck by the contrast between their pupils and even the brightest and best behaved boys and girls in clubs and evening institutes. This is due to the fact that the pupils who attend them are still, for some hours in the week, children, and in behaviour, outlook, and general approach to life have a good deal in common with the boys and girls who are still in the central schools of London, or the secondary and junior technical schools. They are living at any rate a part of their lives in an atmosphere natural for children, instead of spending the whole of every day in an adult world, to which, generally, they can only become adjusted by throwing off their childishness and mimicking the less desirable traits of their older companions. The benefits to be derived, physically, morally, and mentally by this part-time education are such that it seems strange that so many who declare that they have the welfare of youth at heart tend to ignore this obvious solution, and pursue the paths of youth movements, camps, compulsory training, and other quack remedies instead. It is a good thing to learn what we can at all times from the experience of other countries; but let us copy the part-time education system of pre-Nazi Germany, rather than the camp system of the Hitler Youth. We must realize that it is impossible to have a fit adolescence if at the same time we insist on a wage-earning adolescence. If the country believes that economically it cannot exist without the full-time labour of boys and girls from fourteen onwards, it must resign itself to producing a C3 nation. But, fortunately, there is a growing

uneasiness about this, although many of those who are uneasy are not yet realizing that fitness is a national concern, and must be paid for by the nation as a whole. Educationists are growing weary of quack remedies, and are hoping that even politicians may soon realize that tired children cannot be fit, and that school is the natural place for the child, and not the workshop, the office, or the factory.

The 1936 Education Act was a bad Act; the war has killed it. Those interested in the welfare of youth must make it their business to see that a new and better act is placed on the statute books as soon as possible, raising the school leaving age to 15, without any exemp-

tions, and making attendance at day continuation schools for at least two years afterwards compulsory throughout the country, for those not receiving full-time education. It is interesting, in the light of the present-day emphasis on youth, to read of the arguments which confronted Lord Shaftesbury when he wished to enforce education up to the age of 12. He was confronted with the same arguments against it as are the educational reformers of to-day. Vested interests are as powerful to-day as they were then. And it will not be till they are overcome, and the interest of the child is the only vested interest taken into account, that England will have a future generation of which to be proud.

A Youth Welfare Centre : An Experiment

H. E. Clinkard

ON the outbreak of war the London Youth Organizations Committee decided to open Youth Welfare Centres in London, and appealed for volunteers to be leaders and helpers. It was suggested that the centres should be open for a few hours daily : after some necessary preliminary work the leader should make it known in the neighbourhood that he or she was ready to receive queries, to help solve the problems which the young people of over school age were meeting in the changed conditions of war-time. The centres were housed in L.C.C. schools, where the leader was authorised to use two rooms. Boys and girls coming with their problems might sit in the Centre for a while, but they should not be allowed to congregate in numbers or to return to it regularly. It must not become a club. In fact, youth was offered 'help and advice', and it was stated that there would be no charge whatsoever.

At a meeting of helpers held two or three weeks after the centres had been opened, those who were becoming discouraged because they had sat for long hours waiting for the young people who never appeared, were told to be patient; their use would be apparent after

air raids; it was then that there would be many problems for them to solve.

At that time I was helping in a youth centre at least an hour's journey from my office and even more from my home. Obviously unless the air raid was rather conveniently timed I shouldn't be at the centre, and to get there after the raid might also be somewhat difficult. However, our centre conformed so little to the approved pattern that I didn't worry too much.

We opened rather later than most of the others. I had been busy elsewhere for the first ten days of the war, and an inspection of the four schools allocated for youth welfare centres in my borough convinced me that I should be wasting my time in them. Three of them were central schools in good respectable areas. Few of the young folk I was thinking about would come to them from their own 'black spots' just to seek my help and advice. Most probably they would never hear of me.

The London Y.O.C. listened to my protests, told me if I could find other schools they would try to get authority for them to be used, but prophesied that all those in the areas I approved would be found to be occupied by air raid wardens, fire brigades, ambulance corps

or balloon barrage squadrons. But I selected a number which would serve my purpose, and finally chose one for the first venture just because the schoolkeeper was so friendly. I knew I should depend a great deal on him. In some of the schools I had marked down the schoolkeepers were only too eager to point out the superior merits, for my purpose, of the other schools: *this* man said, 'I'd be glad for *anyone* to come. I don't know myself without the kids. Anything to have some young people about the place again, some life and movement.'

So I and one or two helpers took possession of our two small rooms, explored our immediate neighbourhood, made ourselves known to the police station and the Salvation Army, which were both 'over the way', got in touch with the juvenile employment exchange officers, the district care committee organiser, and such like friendly people, tried to find out what clubs and youth organizations were still open in the neighbourhood. As far as we could see, the work done for youth in the area must always have been meagre enough; now most of it had not reopened after the summer holidays. But there was no doubt that there were more really young people in the public houses than ever before, that they were running wild in the darkened streets, or spending their time in activities even less desirable.

We early decided to leave 'welfare' out of our name. I had asked a group of young members in a girls' club what Youth Welfare Centre suggested to them. I found they vaguely associated it with having their teeth out and their eyes tested—the equivalent for adolescents of the baby-weighing, that went on at the local infant welfare centre. So we became just a Youth Centre.

We did not see why any young people should come into our dismal schoolrooms just because we put up a few notices and said we were willing to give help and advice—so few people, young or old, like advice. We decided we had better have a few club activities despite the circulars of the Y.O.C. If the young people had any problems we weren't at all sure whether we should be able to deal with them, but perhaps they'd be more likely to disclose them and at least discuss them with us when they knew us through having played games

with us. And maybe, in casual conversation, when we had found out something about the home circumstances, we should discover their biggest problems, problems they scarcely realized.

The first week we opened from 2 to 4.30 in the afternoons, and a number of boys and girls of 13 to 17 came in, until by Friday we had about 30 of them. They were unemployed, children who had just left school, or those who were about to do so, and so had not gone with the school children into the country. We settled down to ping-pong (the schoolkeeper having borrowed certain equipment from the evening institute next door), darts, draughts, dominoes, reading, knitting blanket squares, and games in the hall or playground.

Any number of children of school age wanted to come in. One wet afternoon we softened our hearts and let them in—lots of little merry, naughty boys. But we did not repeat the experiment; they were very noisy, did not mix well with the older children, would obviously swamp them in numbers and drive them out, we should quickly have had a centre for school children. Reluctantly we shut them out next day—we liked them, and they were obviously so bored with doing nothing.

The second week we opened in the evenings as well, from 6.30 to 9. Before its end the numbers began to alarm us. They just poured in, these young people of 14 to 21. In despair we took over the hall, though we had no permission to use it. The schoolkeeper still wonders how he will account for the electric light bill which the nightly use of a large hall will produce. 'Roughs and toughs' we certainly got. A desperate appeal to the Central Council of Recreative Physical Training produced a much needed man to take physical training and games with the boys, and a woman to do the same for girls. The boys were too undisciplined to play any game whatever; 'rough house' was the order of the day. The girls were either too noisy and wild or too apathetic to form into any class.

Another week or so and the boys had been persuaded to take off their hats when they came in and keep them off while they remained; organised 'rough house' had led to real games with sides and rules; some girls appeared in

knickers for the keep-fit class. A girls' drama group had formed.

But we had 100 to 150 in every night ; we had neither room nor activities enough to enable us to occupy all our young people. The few helpers struggled to keep order ; all the breakable school property had had to be moved out of reach (clock, barometer, pictures, etc.), window after window was broken, many of the chairs lost their backs or their legs. Yet if we suggested closing for even one night, the outcry was great ; even a proposal that girls might have one night a week entirely to themselves, the same thing to apply to the boys on another, met with the anxious query, 'But what are we to do the night we can't come, miss ?'

We pegged away. Now we are in our fifth week of evening opening. We have a club committee, elected in general meeting, and all the members of the committee have specific duties and the general task of helping us to run a pleasant happy, orderly club. Some of the older and wildest boys are on the committee and take games and physical training in the hall—for, alas, our instructors had to leave us. One of the girls is collecting a netball team. Another committee member runs the library ; yet another covers the walls with numerous but quite attractive notices.

A subscription of 1d. a night and $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per afternoon, or a weekly 'season' costing 6d. admitting to all sessions, was decided on by the members themselves and is being paid by them this week. Maybe they will find it is too high and that by Thursday our attendance is poor (Friday is often pay-day)—but they fixed it themselves and it will be they who will alter it.

From our funds we must pay for our breakages, pay the charwoman, buy equipment, perhaps take a football pitch on Saturdays.

Our activities are varied but a little erratic for we depend entirely on voluntary helpers, and not only their willingness to help but their ability to take specific subjects. But we are collecting a goodly band. A young medical student has brought down his microscope and a dead frog—so biology begins. His group will gather round him and discuss too the atomic theory or the stars : he can get the interested few and hold them. Several are learning

French amid the din of ping-pong and dart players ; debates and discussions have been attempted ; a girls' art class began by some twelve of them sketching in charcoal one of their number. Badges for the committee are being made from pewter ; our dancing gets better as a ballroom dancing class makes headway. We are a little quieter because more organised ; the property does not get broken quite so quickly because our fierce committee members prevent it ; and in the large hall we do not smoke.

But we have still not nearly enough occupations—particularly for boys. Women helpers are all very well, but they cannot really give boys the opportunity for letting off steam in the sheer physical exertion that so many of them really need. So our boys hang about a good deal of the evening and get bored.

And we are very, very cold. We have no funds yet from which to buy fuel for the boiler and no permission from the L.C.C. to use it.

Despite all, however, the young folk come, 120 strong, nightly. Why ? Because they have been used to living and playing in the streets, and now the streets are no longer good places to play in. Few of them have ever been members of evening institutes, clubs, or any organisation whatsoever. They don't want to stay at home—maybe the homes are crowded, but, in any case, the boys and girls are at the age when they are ready for something outside the home ; to get away is a necessity, the normal development of the adolescent.

This presents a wonderful opportunity for educational work. In cold blood these youngsters will not sign on for drama or biology or millinery. If the activity is started, led by someone who can handle them, they will tackle it. Perhaps not very regularly, perhaps not very responsibly. But something will have been done. And the wild young people will have become more 'civilized' in the process. The loose 'come and go' club cannot reach the standards attained by the clubs of the established voluntary organizations, but if the atmosphere is informal, the regulations elastic, and the leadership right, much can be done in the sphere of character training, training in self-government, and the taking of responsibility. Is it not the job of the education

authorities, national and local, to see that this opportunity of training up citizens is not lost?

Our Youth Centre is told it must get out of the school, find premises elsewhere. That means finding money for rent, heating, lighting and cleaning, and leadership. In peace time the voluntary juvenile organizations had always far more work to do than money with which to do it. The war has increased the difficulties of maintaining existing work. So that we can take it for granted that funds adequate to meet the cost of this extra work will not be available from private sources. Public help must be sought, both the Board of Education and the Local Education Authorities must give aid if the problem is to be dealt with.

Can they not lend the schools? To run any kind of club in a school is far from ideal. To house outside the schools anything like the number of clubs that will be needed if the problem is to be tackled at all adequately

would be very costly. Inside the school much can be done. The school buildings all too often now stand dark and empty in our large towns. The elementary schools are to reopen in part, the evening institutes may reopen, but the numbers of those attending must be necessarily be lower than usual, the Fire Brigade or the First Aid people are usually occupying one floor only of the school. There is room for us. Let the Education Authorities come in and help the young people right from this lowest level, by providing rooms and light and warmth and leadership, so that they are in youth centres instead of in the dark streets.

Once we have them there, it will depend on the vision with which we tackle the problem, the degree of freedom we leave the leaders and the help we can collect, how long we *keep* the young people, how much education in its broad sense we can give them.

The Thameside Boys' Club

Rex Regis

Manager

I've been running this club for the last ten years, just as a place where the boys of the neighbourhood can come in and do what interests them.

The building is just right for the job—it is on a corner site and used to be a pub. The cellars make an excellent miniature rifle range, with deep wine bins at the sides where we can pot at bottles. On the ground floor we have a large L-shaped room which is both play-room and gymnasium and is wired and screened for showing films. Upstairs there is a large billiard room with a full-sized billiard table—paid for by the boys themselves at twopence per game.

The boys look after the place themselves and do running repairs, redecoration (which we do fairly frequently) and also the daily cleaning and heating. Also one of them runs their own canteen, or rather, tuck-shop. I won't say it's as tidy as if we paid a woman to do it, but it is clean and quite tidy enough and the boys like to keep it so. I'm a carpenter myself, so most of the boys get into the way of making or mending things as the need arises, and some of them are very handy at it.

We started purely as an athletic club—cricket to be exact, and then soccer, and we still put out very keen teams at both games. We have also acquired a 16-foot dinghy and we row each year in the Head of the River race—we came up ten places in 1937. All our members learn to swim really well in the first year, and most summer evenings are spent in or on the river or in cycling round the country.

The grand climax to this is ten days' camp at the Blue-coat school at Horsham each summer. This is run by a group of Christ's Hospital masters and old boys. Our boys are magnificently fed—food largely grown in the school grounds and really well prepared in the school kitchens, and all the amenities of the school are at their disposal—swimming baths, playing fields and gymnasium, as well as the countryside all about. They come back looking and feeling and even speaking twice as well and confidently as before, all at a cost of 10s. a head.

Indoors they go in for any activities they like, boxing, wrestling, tumbling, bar work, club swinging, and so on. Most of the boys have a shot at the lot—I don't believe in specializing too young—but they're good enough for the L.C.C. to have invited a hundred of them to take part in a physical culture display recently. The older ones help the younger ones with their work; that is really the basis of the club. They join at about 11 and stay till 18, after which they can stay on till 22 if they'll pull their weight in helping to run the club. One of our boxing instructors is a young policeman—lightweight champion of the force—who spends many evenings with us. This connection with the police, though entirely unofficial, isn't a bad thing as it keeps away the sort of boy who would turn the club into a rough house, so making serious activities impossible.

We turn the premises over once a week to a girls' club, run by a friend of ours. I don't myself believe in mixed clubs—the boys and girls either find each

other a nuisance or too much of a distraction. But what I do believe in is combined activities at fairly regular intervals. When they're at work together on theatricals for instance, with a real job on hand that they're all keen on, they get much more real enjoyment out of it than they do out of a social or a dance. Anyhow, that's what we've found here.

The war has broken into our work sadly. A great many of the younger boys are evacuated, and we get letters from them from country districts where there are usually no out-of-school activities for them and what there are are held from 4 to 6 p.m. Two of my regular helpers have started country branches, one of them very flourishing, at Iver, Bucks., which is open both to evacuees and to local children. Meantime, I keep the club here open all day now so that school-less and unemployed youngsters can

use it instead of racketing about the streets. I look in occasionally when I can leave my work for a minute, but on the whole they run it themselves. The evacuees still pay their dues for the most part, and the boys here sometimes write to them and give them our news. To judge from our post-bag, which I pin up on a notice-board, letters from home are one of the chief needs of the evacuees.

We have a library and several small quiet rooms where the boys can read or play cards in peace (books welcome!). And on Sundays also the club is open on condition that members come to an hour's discussion meeting at which all sorts of subjects are threshed out—political, religious and merely facetious. The boys themselves bring up the subjects and show keen good sense and considerable powers of argument.

Discipline for Adolescents

J. W. Oliver, A. Blount

UNTIL comparatively recently one frequently heard or read that many young people between the ages of 14 and 18 were irresponsible members of the community for whom apparently little or nothing could be done until they 'grew out' of their foolish ways. It is gratifying to note that such criticisms are now being replaced by constructive efforts to provide useful and attractive activities for the adolescents, with the result that much of that conduct which called for condemnation is disappearing.

It is true that various forms of hooliganism are still unfortunately found, but usually its prevalence is due to an absence of facilities for the profitable employment of leisure hours.

In our particular area, which is within a few miles of London, a small village has within the last ten years become a town of some 70,000 inhabitants. Whilst the social centres of the village were sufficient for the small populace they were not able to provide for the entire social activities of the quickly increasing numbers. Small groups of adults formed themselves, principally to remedy grievances. Younger children were catered for by the Scouts, Guides, Boys' Brigades, Life Boys, etc., which were run in connection with places of worship. But very little was done for the adolescents. The only organization dealing with them was an Old Scholars' Club, which could only supply football. This club suffered badly through lack of accommodation.

Evening Classes provided some social activities for their students, but there were many young people who were not catered for, partly because there were very few adults who would take on the responsibility of organizing and running activities for them. Those who attempted to do this work found themselves having to provide funds, etc., for running the club. What was to be done for these young people? What could they do in their spare time? Boys could be seen in groups in the streets,

sometimes floating into the public houses for their recreation. Here unfortunately bad habits were cultivated which sometimes brought serious consequences. There were hundreds of other young people, not associated with any religious organization, who would not join any movement such as the Scouts or Guides because of their dread of uniform. What could be done for them?

Their greatest need was for a centre where they could all meet for organization, recreation and education. When the Community Association, with its Juvenile Organization, bought a suitable building and gained the generous support of the Local Education Authority, the one great need in the district seemed about to be fulfilled.

One must remember that these boys and girls are growing out of childhood into early maturity and will therefore continue to require some form of supervision and guidance, particularly during the first year or two of the period under consideration, although this should be given as unobtrusively as possible.

In most Senior Schools of to-day boys and girls are trained to develop a reasonably high degree of self-control and self-discipline; and yet, soon after they have left school, these same boys and girls are 'the troublesome youth' against whom adverse criticism is so often levelled. It would appear that the process of developing self-control must be continued through some suitable organization or else these boys and girls will probably have to pay dearly whilst they learn, through the school of bitter experience, that in a civilized community there is no place for the uncontrolled and undisciplined individual.

Our duty then, with regard to youth, is clear and well defined—it is to encourage them to join existing Youth Organizations and, if necessary, to establish others until there are facilities sufficiently numerous and attractive for all the youth of our cities and

towns and villages. Such organizations, according to size and available accommodation, should seek, either individually or collectively, to provide the greatest possible variety of activities to satisfy the varying needs and wishes of the youth concerned. We do not suggest that it will always be practicable or even advisable to attempt to introduce all the activities that the adolescents themselves propose, but it will be generally agreed that the majority of older boys and girls will respond more readily and co-operate more effectively if they are permitted to voice their opinions and express their wishes, even if these latter are incapable of fulfilment.

Experience has taught us that discipline is essential, and boys are required to show consideration and courtesy to one another as well as to the leaders of the various sections of their club. It should be noted that the discipline required is of a kind which is not inconsistent with democratic principles, and it is hoped that the lads will gradually and willingly practise a self-imposed discipline, which is our aim in this branch of the work. The results so far obtained are most encouraging. By the time they reach the upper age limit of 18 many boys are ready to undertake some form of leadership; indeed a number do so in the club, and most have successfully bridged that difficult gap between schooldays and early manhood. One has naturally encountered some rather difficult cases, where lads have not shown a willingness to 'fit in' but, without exception there have been special reasons for this, and each case has had to be dealt with individually. Discreet enquiry, sympathetic understanding, and the expressed wish for some higher standard of conduct have in many cases produced the desired result.

It must be recognized that many of these are disinclined to undertake any form of continued education, probably because they have little or no academic ability or because they lack a good home influence and parental guidance. This type of lad must be provided with some kind of occupation which appeals to him and to which he will look forward as his leisure time approaches. It has been found that boys who have never seemed to realize the meaning of co-operation and loyalty have, through these means acquired a standard of social conduct not previously dreamed of. Success in this

work will be dependent upon many factors, some of which may vary according to local circumstances, but it is essential that the services of the best possible kind of leader be secured and that suitable premises should be acquired.

One cannot emphasize too strongly the value of the influence of leaders who command the respect and affection of young people, but even with this help success will not necessarily be immediate and cannot be guaranteed—indeed, as already suggested, the road is strewn with difficulties and disappointments—but there is a very definite possibility that if one does not tire of well-doing success will be achieved at last.

The building in which these boys and girls meet should be made as comfortable and as attractive as possible. This may, at first sight, seem to be a superfluous observation, and yet how often does one find youth organizations meeting in places which are devoid of those homely comforts which we, who are older, require in our clubs?

In this connection we should remember particularly the type of youth who has few real home comforts, for, in the main, it is he who is so often in trouble. The attraction of a cosy chair and a bright fire is irresistible. Most social workers will agree that the biggest difficulty with regard to the wayward youth is to 'get hold of him', and few things are more calculated to draw him than the cheerful, happy and homely atmosphere of the building in which he may meet his friends and in which there are quiet rooms as well as general recreation rooms.

The care of the furniture, books, apparatus, etc., should be the special responsibility of the members, most of whom, with a little encouragement, will doubtless show a willingness to contribute what they can, in service or in kind, for the benefit of their fellows. If circumstances permit, small articles of furniture could be made during the 'hobbies hour' for use in various rooms of the club. No opportunity should be missed for providing members with the chance of doing some work or of rendering some service for the benefit of others. The members will take an ever increasing share of the management, and one looks forward to the time when the club will be run almost entirely by the boys and girls themselves.

A War-time Club

L. A. Lewis

I HAVE been a member of a Children's (School) Care Committee for many years and therefore have in my possession the names and addresses of all the boys and girls who have left Hackford Road School with notes on their school records, ideas about employment, parents' circumstances, and so on. When war broke out it seemed to me that these youngsters, who were too old to be evacuated and too young to join the services, were going to be in need of a certain amount of advice

and help—particularly those who had left in 1937 and 1938, who had more or less lost touch with school and might not yet have found their feet.

So I wrote them each a letter—Christian names to the girls and to the boys I knew well, surnames to the others—asking them what they were doing in these days and telling them that if they were in need of advice with regard to their work, home or free time, I should be delighted to help. Also that I should be at the school every day from 2 to 4 if

they were free to call and see me. The L.C.C. has given me two or three rooms there for a Youth Welfare Centre.

About half of them answered—all very nice letters, telling of their work in a number of different jobs, from dressmaking to rag and bone sorting, many of them giving me bits of family news and most of them sounding quite settled and contented. A good many of the others came to see me—the ones who are out of work—and it was they themselves who begged to be allowed to form a club. This neighbourhood is not well off for juvenile clubs and even if it were I don't know that these particular boys and girls would have been very likely to have joined one in normal times or even now. But they set to work with a will to organize one of their own. We have not got a great variety of occupations yet. The girls are making clothes, knitting, etc., for the evacuated children and the boys play ping-pong and draughts, darts and card games. We are in urgent need of a gramophone for those of a lighter frame of mind.

They've had a committee meeting at which they suggested that each member should pay 3d. a week. We compromised on 2d. with the proviso that if I know any boy or girl can't afford to pay I shall let him or her in for nothing and say nothing about it to anyone. We should like to have hot tea and cocoa, but at present the only room in the building which has a cooking stove is not blacked out. However, we may get permission to make it usable.

Various problems of management crop up. For example, there was the question of smoking. Some of the sixteen-year-olds very naturally wanted to smoke. But I pointed out that if they did, the younger ones would start smoking too. Some parents are very down on smoking and if someone got scolded for doing it at home, he'd probably answer, 'All right, I'll go and do it at the club', and that would get us into trouble. They quite saw the point. Indeed they show a great deal of common-sense over all our problems.

Whenever I find that a child is willing to go to a L.C.C. evening institute or to any other form of continuation school I do not let him join the club.

Some of them come just to consult me about this. One boy of 16, who has a job with the A.F.S. and gets two evenings one week and three the next, is very keen on radio engineering and was quite willing to pay £6 10s. for a correspondence course he'd seen advertised. I was able to show him that he'd get a much more practical training from an evening institute—The Beaufoy or Polytechnic—at much less cost.

The L.C.C. rather urges me to keep the club as a clearing station and move the children on to other places after they've spent a few evenings with me. But I hope very much that they will not insist on this. If a girl has been sewing all day she doesn't really want to learn clerical work at night and I am afraid that by urging these young people towards things they don't really want, we shall risk losing them altogether. At the moment this neighbourhood is not very good for young people in the blackout and many of them come from rather unstable homes.

So what I do propose to do is to write to various people who are running evening classes and so on in the neighbourhood and invite them to come in and visit us as friends of the club, one at a time—we're open from 6.30 to 9 every night. And if they can awaken the children's enthusiasm so that they *want* to go on and learn something more, that'll work much better than if I urge them to do it.

Already we have asked for a physical training class at the Cowley School to be arranged—we have about eighteen boys who have consented to go there on a Friday evening. We are having a Debating evening. This week the subject is 'Antivivisection'.

I feel very grateful to my helpers who volunteered after the wireless appeal and it would be impossible to run the Evening Club without their assistance.

Mr. Thomas has been most valuable in coming every evening at 6.30 since we started the club on the 16th October, 1939, and I hope to have two other gentlemen to lend a hand with the boys, who greatly outnumber the girls. Three young ladies also give of their time ungrudgingly.

The next problem we are up against is the number limit. At present we are not allowed over 25.

A Children's House in War-time

Doris Lester

HAS a House, designed for children and used almost solely for children's gatherings or gatherings related to children's work, any function to fulfil in War-time—when nearly all its children are evacuated? That was the question we had to face as the dark cloud of war first threatened and then broke loose upon us.

Our Nursery School was happily evacuated as a unit to Ongar, the Nursery Staff naturally going with the children. But what of the other helpers? Would they still be needed? Would there be work for them to do—work of sufficient worth for them

to feel that in the nation's hour of need they were rendering full-time 'National Service'?

We felt confident that the answer to these questions would be in the affirmative, and events have proved it to be so.

There are the unevacuated children to be considered. However strongly anyone may feel about the urgency of pressing for the evacuation of the child population, all must admit that there will be cases where it could not be pressed, and anyway the mother obviously has the last word.

Are these children to be penalised by ostracism

and the lack of any opportunity of continuing their education, or even their 'play-life'?

One recognises the problems involved and the danger of an increase in the de-evacuation, which all must so greatly deplore, if too attractive home services are offered. However, to offer nothing is to be unnecessarily cruel both to parents and children. Also one has to face the situation that children, left unprovided for, are getting out of hand, and will soon become a real liability.

Here then is our programme as it is at present working.

Every morning we hold a play hour for the younger children. This is open to any boys and girls who are at home, apart from any previous link with the 'Children's House'. These play hours are held at present from 11-12 and would be capable of expansion and extension if sufficient voluntary help were forthcoming.

There is of course opportunity for infinite variety. Sometimes most of the hour is spent in free play. The life size doll's house is admirable for playing at 'Families'. The dolls' prams, the dolls' beds and the dolls' tea sets, too, afford infinite scope for this sort of imaginative play so loved by all children. Then there are the bricks to build with, large bricks that build rooms that the children can go into, or stairs that they can climb. There are easels at which one can stand and paint large almost life-size pictures with free arm movement. Other days the play may be organized. Music, of course, will play a very large part. In responding to the rhythm of the music the child learns self-control and quick response. Musical statues, musical bumps and simple Eurhythmic games and exercises are invaluable. Then many of the old familiar circle games such as Lubin Loo and the Mulberry Bush, supplemented by the more modern singing games, will play their part, and these games have their educational value as well as their value as being a source of pure delight.

There are table games too, and puzzles, picture books, and drawing or painting books. Stories may be told, and later dramatized. Nursery Rhymes may be sung and played out together.

Then, of course, there is the joy of creating real things that can be displayed or used, or even eaten. Clay modelling, making paper cut pictures or potato-cut, or even the making and baking of little buns and tarts—these and similar delights all have their place. Indeed there is no end to the fascinating things that may be done in a play hour.

In fact there are, or should be—though resources are very limited and stock often runs low—all the

materials which one would find in a well-stocked nursery, and which should be within the reach of all children of whatsoever class or condition, as giving wings to their imagination, scope to their creative faculty, and opportunities for playing happily together and thus laying the foundations of community life or of the yet unlearned art of 'living together'.

Each afternoon the Children's House is again open for an hour, from four to five, for older boys and girls. Again the programme is varied, and here of course there is also scope for a great deal of indirect or direct education. These hours too would be capable of infinite development and expansion, if help were forthcoming. Here surely is a great opportunity for pioneer work by any who have the mind for it. What projects might be launched, what records might be kept and later made available for others, by those working in this way, unhampered by large numbers or tiresome restrictions, free to experiment, to watch and to record.

Creative writing, choral speaking, an appreciation of literature, rhythmic movement, modelling, creative work of every sort, world history through stories, charts and dramatization, a study of one's own neighbourhood and visits to places of interest—such suggestions come at once into one's mind amongst a score of other possibilities. Indeed all the things that so far have been only possible to the advanced type of school now might come within the range of the ordinary elementary school child, if we would take the opportunities that offer themselves.

On Sundays there are Services for the boys and girls of various ages.

In the evenings a full programme of clubs and classes is planned for the young adolescents and meetings and classes are also held for parents. These are housed at present in the neighbouring Kingsley Hall, and include First Aid, Keep Fit, Gym, Homemaking, Dressmaking, Dramatics, Classes on Current International Affairs and on Citizenship.

Whilst actually writing this one hears over the 'phone of further developments at the daughter 'Children's House' at Dagenham, where an amateur part-time school with planned curriculum is being initiated this week.

Pieces of experimental work of this sort are obviously needed to-day, but alas, social services are generally the first to suffer in times of crisis when probably they are more urgently needed than ever. Our incomes—depending as we do almost entirely on voluntary contributions—may shrink as rapidly as our opportunities and needs expand, but we carry on in faith and confidence in the goodwill of those who put the children always first!

Points from Letters

'I was very interested to read the article by Dr. McAllister in the October issue of *The New Era*, on the Camp which I organized for the Stutterers under my care, and to note also your suggestion regarding similar camps for evacuees.

'The whole venture was merely the logical outcome

of the ideas which are being put into practice in Chesterfield, where we realize that unity of treatment is the fundamental necessity in problems arising out of the development—whether normal or abnormal—of children.

'Despite the fact that to-day there is an ever

increasing stressing of the vital connections between body and mind—despite also the frequent cases of delinquents whose difficulties are traced to physical causes, there is still the idea abroad that a child can be classed as a physical, a psychological, or a moral “case”. In other words, what is emphasized in theory is denied completely in practice.

‘The camp can be an ideal centre for affording the child a unified treatment for his specific difficulties ; on the other hand it can be merely a means of increasing the child’s worries. The essential for success is, of course, an enthusiastic staff motivated by the same ideals. Recently I have seen a group of evacuees living in a large billet. Materially, conditions are excellent but the children live under two distinct disciplinary systems ; for some hours they are under the control of the teaching staff, who are both enlightened and enthusiastic ; the rest of the time they are disciplined by the House staff, who are appalled by the fact that the enuresis problem is getting quite beyond control ! The Matron and her Assistant are physically exhausted by the time they have made their nightly pilgrimage round all the dormitories, disturbing the children’s sleep in a vain effort to rectify the condition.

‘Personally, I am convinced that the solution of the evacuation problem lies in the organization of therapeutic camps in the charge of trained psychologists whose control would require to be absolute. Being a very firm believer in “using” our adversities, I can see under the present emergency conditions a unique opportunity for realizing the dream of most of us who are engaged in therapeutical work—namely, that of getting the children away from the, often fatal, home environment.

‘If camps, however, are to be organized and controlled by an unenlightened few or by people inexperienced in the needs of the problem child, there can be only failure and disaster ahead. At the moment we need not good-natured muddling, but the pooled resources of all our experts.

‘Should any members of the N.E.F. be fortunate enough to be concerned in the organization of therapeutical camps, I shall be very willing to place at their disposal whatever experience I have gained from the camps I have arranged here.’

Randal Keane,

Education Department, Town Hall, Chesterfield

‘The schools in Villars suffered during the steady decline of confidence throughout Europe, and many never recovered from the panic of September 1938, when children were recalled overnight by telegram and telephone. The outbreak of war confronted the parents of those that remained with an unhappy choice, which many of them seem to have shirked thinking out in advance ; whether to leave their children in safety at the risk of being cut off from them, or to reunite the family at all costs. Here, family feeling won in nearly all cases, and most of the Villars schools are closing down.

‘The schools that remain open are putting themselves at the disposal of the International Red Cross, in the hope that children from belligerent countries

may eventually be evacuated here. A thousand children could be received at a day’s notice in buildings properly equipped and staffed, at present standing idle. Can the intelligence of our various governments rise yet to this level ?

‘Meanwhile, at l’Avenir we have decided to try to carry on as we are. We believe that we are doing something valuable and that now of all times the school should give of its best to the community. Though Switzerland is politically neutral, the strain of war conditions is already making itself felt, and our fundamental problem is the same as yours—to save the children body and soul. And, since we have first to save them from ourselves, we are adopting a definite technique in our personal relations. (No doubt many other schools are doing the same ; we can claim no originality.)

‘We make no attempt to ignore or forget the war, for the danger of suppressed anxiety is clear. The adults of our small group, and some of the older children, listen in together to war news ; we discuss together and face frankly our individual and collective anxieties, and, this done, we find that we can lay them aside and turn to the children with a serenity that surprised ourselves. We can discuss the war with them objectively when they ask for it, and by teaching and example we can continue to give them the sense of stable values that many of them can no longer find in their own homes. We believe that we can continue to do so, through the months of strain that lie before us. And we are already finding that this sense of stability can be communicated through the children to a wider circle—to parents and visitors who sometimes seem to need it even more.

‘Here, as with you in London, there is a general feeling of spiritual as well as material insecurity ; patriotism is not enough ; the churches have failed these people, and we believe that the school can now play a great and inspiring part, as a new social nucleus. It is our opportunity and privilege, and our previous training has helped to prepare us for it.

‘So, like the Fellowship as a whole, we are carrying on. We work on a small scale, but if ever we at l’Avenir can be of service to members of the Fellowship elsewhere, we shall be happy to hear from them.’

John Hamshere,

L’Avenir, Villars-sur-Ollon, Switzerland

‘. . . I do not think the war has raised any fresh educational problems. The pseudo-problems which it has raised are nothing more nor less than the dislocation of a service through the interference of those who have not had the benefits of training or experience in the work they have undertaken !

‘It is my personal conviction that teachers who have been put in anomalous positions by muddle-headed authorities must, while striving to do what lies in them for the sake of those children in their charge, emphatically protest their position and demand the rights accorded to all other responsible professional bodies. To the teachers as individuals

and to the great bodies which represent them, we look for a realization that the responsibilities that lie upon them to-day are greater than ever.'

C. H. Jackson

'... Every Sunday, for instance, we have a debate about themes as: "Should the use of money be abolished in favour of bartering" or "Is a lawyer justified in defending a murderer whom he knows to be guilty?" That all sounds a bit sophisticated, but it is great fun. It is amazing with what an amount of seriousness chaps of 12 or 13 defend their point and address each other as "most honourable and gallant". Usually several masters of ours take part too, whose arguments often are shattered by third form chaps.

I still manage to look tolerably clean, despite the fact that washing, as in the Mohammedan rites, has generally shrunkled (*sic*) down to a mere symbolic

ceremony, repeated once a week only. There are violent fights, however, for the possession of the bath.'

Evacuated Secondary School boy

'... The Youth Centre in Sydenham was opened on 11th September primarily as a "Help and Advice Bureau" for young people. While waiting for any of the 14-18s to learn of our existence we allowed a certain number of younger children to use the Centre. Many of them sent their older brothers and sisters up in the evening so that it was good publicity. After about a fortnight we found that we were firmly established and could not take the numbers of school children who wanted to use the Centre's recreative facilities. (*N.B.*—Not help and advice but recreation !)

Mary S. Brown (London Club Leader)

Book Review

Democracy in the Dock. By Gideon Clark.
The American Political Scene. By Frank Darvall. (Nelson & Sons, 2/6 each.)

These two additions to the excellent series of Discussion Books make interesting reading side by side. Mr. Clark is concerned with the democracy of Great Britain, and he deals with it frankly, realistically and sometimes brutally. There can be few books on democracy that contain less high-flown tosh. Its great strength is that it makes the reader think about the thing in the details of its actual working, instead of in terms of spacious general principles and vague ideals. He is not indifferent to ideals. Far from it. He wants to see them put into practice. 'Does democracy make for the greatest happiness, material and spiritual, of the greatest number?' is his main question. He sets out, with notable fairness, the claims of totalitarianism in Russia, Italy and Germany, and over against them the achievements of democracy. From the comparison emerges a faith in democracy that is stronger for having faced the objections fairly and squarely. What is required now, Mr. Clark maintains, is a democratic revival, in the religious sense. 'If it be an exaggeration to describe democracy in Britain as a failure, it is equally an understatement to let it pass as merely an imperfect attempt in an imperfect world. There are better democracies in being to serve as models; our own could be improved and made reasonably thorough with comparative ease.' The obstacles are fully discussed, and they do not seem to be irremovable. If we do remove

them British democracy will emerge from the shadows, and we may hope that its best achievements are yet to come.

Mr. Darvall's book expounds the workings of a totally different kind of democracy from that which we know in Britain. It is extremely salutary that we should be forced nowadays to question the perfection of our own political system. But there is a danger that we should think that we can only learn from the latter-day spectacular regimes. Let us look at the other democracies and learn. Most British people are scandalously ignorant of their workings, and not least of the U.S.A., towards which—let us admit it—far too many of them adopt an attitude of insufferable superiority. Well, Mr. Darvall leaves us no excuse now for ignorance. His book is fascinating to read and he packs it full of information. I have learnt more about America from it than I had ever hoped to gather from one book, and I intend to keep it by me for constant reference (which will be facilitated by the additions I have found it necessary to make to the index !).

These two books are designed, of course, for adult readers. Are they to be recommended for school as well? Mr. Clark's book would, I fear, bewilder and depress any children but the most mature, and perhaps encourage cynicism. It would be too awkward a supplement to their history and citizenship books! Let the teacher read it and draw on it judiciously. Mr. Darvall's book, on the other hand, would be very useful for intelligent senior children who are studying America or current events.

V. Ogilvie

N.E.F. News

ENGLISH SECTION

Since last month's note in *The New Era* was written, the situation of the English Section of the N.E.F. has become clearer. On Saturday, October

**New Education Fellowship,
29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1**

14th, a well-attended meeting of the Committee and interested members was held, and a discussion lasting two and a half hours took place. From this, as well as from communications received, it was

THE NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

The New Education Fellowship is a world organization. It sets out to further educational improvement and reform throughout the world so that every individual—whatever his nationality, race, status or religion—shall be educated under conditions which allow of the full and harmonious development of his whole personality, and lead to his realizing his responsibilities to the community.

A brochure giving further details will be sent on application.

MEMBERSHIP

The normal procedure for those interested is to join the Section in their own country. Subscription rates vary in different countries. The names of secretaries will be gladly sent on application to Headquarters.

Direct subscription to Headquarters (primarily intended for those living in countries where there is no Section and for those who wish to make a special contribution to the international work) is as follows :

Full Membership	£1 1s. 0d.	includes copies of <i>The New Era</i> monthly and the International News and Notes.
World Membership	5s. 0d.	includes International News and Notes.

INTERNATIONAL HEADQUARTERS : 29 TAVISTOCK SQUARE, LONDON, W.C.1.

evident that the Section can only answer the calls that are being made upon it for help and guidance if it continues to work as an independent unit, with a Secretariat of its own. Mr. V. Ogilvie has been appointed Secretary, and every effort is being made to maintain and expand the Section's activities.

The calls for service—guidance in the use of newer methods for evacuated teachers, help for 'lay' teachers in evacuated areas, help from psychology for those facing aggravated behaviour difficulties, the establishment of contacts for uprooted and marooned teachers—all point to a need for meetings and regular groups. To this task the Section is turning its hand. Mr. Ogilvie and Mrs. Beatrice King addressed a meeting at Cambridge on November 8th. Meetings are being planned in other places, and it is hoped that permanent groups will be formed, where teachers and others can thrash out their problems and also receive help from experts.

The Section has collected materials for the use of voluntary Children's Centres in London, where school-less children are being occupied for a few hours a day. We wish to thank those who have so generously sent parcels of paper, pencils, crayons, games, etc., and to assure them that their gifts have been a real boon.

An informal staff meeting is held at Headquarters every Wednesday at 10.30 a.m. for the discussion of our work and plans and to receive reports from different parts of the country. We should be very glad if members would drop in and give us the

benefit of their experiences and views at these meetings.

May we also ask members who have been evacuated to let us have their new addresses, so that we may have up-to-date files to help us in planning local activities. At the same time we should be glad to hear of members' experiences and problems in the new war-time circumstances.

SCOTTISH SECTION

The Secretary, Miss J. K. Borland, writes that evacuation and the calls of war work have severely hampered the Section, which had to abandon its Conference and Annual Meeting in October. The scattered members are now being tracked down, and it is hoped that we shall later on have some first-hand accounts of their doings and difficulties.

We have received a report of one valuable piece of work, carried out in the reception areas. Shortly after the outbreak of war the Film Commissioner for Scotland asked the Scottish Film Council to organize Film Shows for evacuated children in places more than two miles from a picture house. Thanks to the highly developed state of the Educational Film movement in Scotland, within a week Film Units were on the road, and by the end of the first fortnight in October twenty of these Units were covering the reception areas. Operators were drawn from the ranks of the Scottish Educational Film Association, a very strong voluntary teachers' organization.

The wholehearted co-operation of Directors of Education, notably those of Glasgow and Edinburgh, secured the release of teachers for this work. Certain cinematograph equipment dealers lent their aid and projectors that could be operated from 12 volt car batteries were obtained.

The teachers set out in their cars, with projectors, screens, darkening material, flex and a programme of films, to give shows in schools, halls, churches and private houses. The programme was made up of interest and instructional silent films, together with two reels of comedy, the whole lasting about an hour and a half. During October some 450 shows were given, to over 50,000 children.

All who witnessed any of the shows agree that the work was of the greatest benefit, both recreationally and educationally, and urge that the experiment so happily begun should be developed into a permanency.

AUSTRALIA : Mr. Frank Tate

Dr. Laurin Zilliacus writes : 'In the death of Mr. Frank Tate the N.E.F. loses a pillar of support and a number of its members a personal friend. There is no need to labour this point for those who in 1937 took part in the Australian N.E.F. Conference. Mr. Tate received us as the first of our hosts and he accompanied us on the greater part of our tour. He was to me beyond comparison the most striking person we met in the Southern Hemisphere ; his bent figure supported by a stout walking stick, the white hair crowning the remarkably bold features, these formed a picture I shall carry with me to my grave.

'To me—I do not know whether he would have accepted the interpretation—he stands out as a Gladstonian figure, one of the Great Victorians, great enough to have been a pioneer in the far-off days and yet to be still a source of wisdom in the different world of our time.

'He never allowed age or infirmity to make the slightest difference ; indeed his endurance and never-failing good humour put some of us weaker brethren to shame. His services to education in Australia and thence to the world have received their tribute elsewhere. I can here only add a note of deep personal appreciation. In this I know I speak for every one of the N.E.F. delegation to Australia. We shall always remember Frank Tate with affection and gratitude as well as respect, and we treasure the contact with him as one of the finest of the many good things that were vouchsafed to us in Australia.'

NEW ZEALAND

The Auckland N.E.F. Group, which embraces over a dozen local branches in the district, is very much alive. The size of these branches and their composition vary with the character of the locality. The subjects which are engaging their attention vary too. There are problems of rural education, e.g. What arithmetic matter is used by the average

farmer ? ; there are general school problems ; there are the problems of Maori education ; and there are the problems of art, the film, parent-teacher relationships, Nursery Schools, and the wide field of psychology. One local group urges the N.E.F. to make representations to the N.Z. Government concerning the censorship of films for children. Another is organizing a children's play centre, for which it has secured the use of a parish hall, with piano and a lawn. Another has organized an exhibition of children's work and a Saturday morning art class. Some members are helping refugees to improve their language. Many parent members have openly stated that their handling of their children has changed since they came into contact with the N.E.F.

The Group as a corporate body meets from time to time and has recently adopted the Panel Discussion technique for its meetings. We notice with admiration and some envy that at these meetings supper is to be had for 3d. ! The Group had a visit during the year from Miss M. A. Payne, Principal of St. Christopher's Nursery Training College, Tunbridge Wells, England.

The Group has approached the Government with a view to facilitating the entry into N.Z. of trained psychological workers from overseas, for whose services, it claims, there is a real need.

SWITZERLAND

Dr. Ferrière writes that the Swiss Section of the N.E.F. is urging that Switzerland should deliberately assume the role of country of refuge for children and mothers from belligerent countries. If the war comes to be waged with the utmost vigour and ruthlessness, the need for a place of safety for children will be keenly felt and Switzerland will wish to take up her historic function as sister of mercy among the nations. But, Dr. Ferrière and his friends say, events move with unexampled rapidity nowadays and preparations must be made beforehand. Plans must be laid and help secured now, both from the countries whose children will need the hospitality of Switzerland and from other neutral countries which desire to take their share in this work of humanity.

N.E.F. Sections and Groups, especially in neutral countries, are asked to give this matter their attention and to consider in what ways public opinion may be prepared for the eventual necessity of such an effort. Those who are interested should get into touch with Dr. Adolphe Ferrière, Les Pléiades sur Blonay, Switzerland.

U.S.A.

The Progressive Education Association brought out in October the first issue of *Frontiers of Democracy*. This magazine continues, in new form, *The Social Frontier*, which for five years has been pressing the need for a more adequate and active social outlook in American education. The editor is Professor W. H. Kilpatrick.

Editor's Note

WE hope that an article in this issue 'Evacuation: the Receiving End' will help to air what we believe to be two distinct and important questions. It is written by an educational administrator in a reception area. Is it therefore biased? Is there some real advantage *for the child* in retaining or restoring the identity of an evacuated school? or are the evacuated children learning most in those places where their schools have been content to merge their identities? Are the teachers' organizations merely standing up for the professional dignity of their members, or are they fighting a threat of unemployment, reduced salaries and lower pensions for teachers? Is any Education Authority in the country deliberately using the present emergency as an opportunity for economizing on education? If so, the teaching body as a whole has a very grave grievance, but not one which should necessarily be met by an insistence on each L.E.A.'s sovereign rights. We hope that correspondence about this article may help to shew (1) which is better for the children—urban schools

run as entities in rural districts or a natural mingling of the school population in the reception areas; (2) whether the Teachers' Associations are engaged upon a problem which is not at bottom the identity of schools but the livelihood of teachers. Before our next issue is out, the opening of schools in evacuation areas may have simplified or further complicated the whole issue. Correspondence invited.

ANOTHER question that raises its head in this issue is 'What do adolescents chiefly need from the community?' Our contributors suggest a diversity of answers, some of them conflicting: interesting occupation, further cultural schooling, advice and help, further discipline, more sleep, a chance to work out their own problems of group behaviour, instruction which will help them to increase their own earning powers. Also a chance to experiment but help in interpreting their experiences so that they do not scar or maim them for life.

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HALSTEAD PLACE, Sevenoaks (recognised preparatory) has moved to "a'Beckett's," Littleton Panell, WILTSHIRE, for the duration of the war. 18 acres. 300 feet high. Ages 7-14. After Christmas, girls only.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Our Part in a World at War

Laurin Zilliacus

**Chairman, New Education Fellowship
Ex-Headmaster, Tölö Svenska Samskola, Helsinki**

ONCE more the lights are going out over Europe! Writing from the darkness it is difficult to preserve a sense of proportion. It is difficult to feel as a reality that many of our members are in countries at peace and view events accordingly, to picture others in countries invaded, in countries conquered and oppressed, or in countries tense with fear of aggression and feverishly preparing to meet it. Nevertheless I write impelled by the conviction that amid the gathering darkness our organization and the understanding between our members is one of the lamps that must not be extinguished, and that we have a common purpose and a common responsibility under the diversity imposed by circumstances. I write convinced that the military and political battles of the last twenty years, the insurrections and aggressions and unrests, are so many incidents in a greater struggle, a continuous war in which we are all taking part on the same side and in which our organization has an honourable record.

The New Education Fellowship grew up round a concern for the welfare of children. That concern was first directed at the poor education given even in the schools for the privileged: the narrow curriculum and the harsh, uneducative discipline. From the small beginnings of the New Schools and kindred pioneer efforts in America and Asia a movement developed that in a generation has swept the world and put schools everywhere well on the road to becoming happy, educative communities. (There are areas of back-sliding, of course,

in which ugly political, social or religious philosophies have been reflected in the schools. I will touch on these in a moment.) For persons with sympathetic concern for children, interest in education could not naturally for long be limited to questions of what takes place within school buildings, least of all within the schools for the privileged few. The concept of education has expanded, and with it the range of those we wish to see enjoying its benefits. Education has now come to mean nothing less than the sum total of all the conditions affecting the development of the individual, and those to whom we wish to give the best possible conditions for growth include every child born into our world, without limitation of sex, race, social or economic status, or indeed of age, since man goes on developing from birth to the grave. The political implications of this view of education are obvious. Since the basic conditions for healthy development are physical—nutrition, shelter, rest, light, air—we are concerned with economic conditions. Since we wish *all* children to have a fair chance, we desire economic justice. Since we include in our 'all', children of other colours and geographical location we must be opposed to exploitation and domination of one people by another. Since the healthy development of man includes his spiritual growth we wish a wide measure of tolerance for each to pursue happiness and understanding in his own way. And since the conditions of growth to full human stature include sharing in responsibilities and common purposes, we desire an

increasing measure of self-government over the whole field of social, political, and economic life.

The political and social implications of the New Education are, in a word, four-square with democracy: democracy taken seriously and reaching beyond anything yet achieved. The democratic state is ultimately the educational state, where every common enterprise is carried out not only for the service it renders to society, but in such a manner as to promote the spiritual and physical development of all those taking part in it.

It is no accident that the view of education we hold should be repudiated in states that are anti-democratic and that they should have eliminated our organization and persecuted our members. It is, on the contrary, a vivid illustration of the connection between democracy and the education which is its servant, and also its creator. The history of the last twenty years is essentially the story of the growing consciousness among men the world over of the rights of Man, their struggle to obtain these rights and the counter-attacks of their opponents. It is therefore equally no accident that the sympathies of our far-flung members should have been given with something very near unanimity to the same parties in the military and political clashes of these years: these have but been visible explosions of the continuous under-surface struggle in which we progressive educators have so vital a stake. Even in the war that is now engulfing Europe the sympathies of our members no doubt coincide very largely with the dividing lines between the opposed forces; very largely, although with cross-currents, doubts and complications due to the fact that the democracies are only partly democratic and are houses divided against themselves, and to the *volte-face* of the U.S.S.R., the state particularly associated by so many with the struggle of the under-dog for a place in the sun. In writing for our members everywhere I must therefore respect their divergencies and I fully understand that their view of their most immediate duties must differ. To some it will appear to be the wholehearted prosecution of the war, to others the support of official scrupulous neutrality, to some the attempt to secure democratic rights 'here and now', to others the effort to bring

the present struggle more definitely into alignment with the fight for democracy, while to some perforce there is room for little else but desperate resistance against aggression from a stronger neighbour. Behind these differences, however, we of the New Education are on the same side in the deeper struggle and we can, to use a Swedish expression, 'stretch out to each other the hand' in the heartening knowledge that we are at one in our fundamental aim: to obtain more of democracy for ourselves and for our fellowmen.

This common aim has certain common implications in practice whether we are in countries at war, at precarious peace, or in the twilight of threatened invasion. As educationists we all have to combat the folly of neglecting the welfare of the rising generation and as adult citizens we have the duty of steadily keeping in sight the democratic goal towards which our national efforts should be directed, and striving to keep the means employed in harmony with the end.

Unless our children grow to fine, strong manhood and womanhood our present efforts are literally meaningless, our countries so much waste land. Yet education, with all that it implies to-day of medical and nutritional care and general welfare, is one of the first services to suffer in times of crisis. Statesmen spending £6,000,000 a day on war will cheerfully save £2,100,000¹ per annum at the expense of the children by knocking a year off their education. They fail to realize that our children—for it is they who will have to pay our gigantic debts—would be better served by having the burdens increased by a fraction of one per cent. than by being crippled. A common duty of all of us, whatever the conditions otherwise, is therefore to strive to obtain better and more education for the growing generation. Our concern for democracy calls for particular efforts in two directions; to extend the sphere of education and to include in it specific preparation for citizenship in a democratic state. The horrors into which the world has blundered are a measure of the inadequacy of our embryonic democracy, and of the magnitude of the

¹ This was the rough estimate made at the time of the passing of the school leaving age bill. £1,465,000 was to be raised by taxation and £625,000 from rates.

demands our successors will have to face. Our children will repeat our crimes of ignorance and indifference with even greater suffering as a result if we turn them adrift in early adolescence, unequipped to run the machinery of democracy and uninspired by its vision.

We who have been guided in our education by this vision as well as by sympathy for children, have at the present juncture more than ever to keep our faith strong in ourselves and to help strengthen it in others. We have to make it clear that democracy is not so much a state structure as a way of life and that we cannot hope to develop a way of life by abandoning it, not even in war time. In an emergency we can delegate specific powers, we can submit to restrictions, give up certain legal safeguards and accept many sacrifices without abandoning democracy—provided we make these temporary changes by consent and retain the right to recall them. We cannot without danger abandon the essentials of democracy: education, the movement towards greater economic and social equality, our constitutional political basis and, above all,

the conscious spirit of a jointly motivated and managed enterprise. If we feel that it is a people's war, a people's effort to defend its neutrality, a people's struggle for liberty in which we are taking part, we have the right, indeed the duty, to demand that this feeling find expression not only in words but in the atmosphere and way of conducting the enterprise. We have the right and the obligation to bring both the method and purpose of the corporate effort to clarity in free discussion.

The war for the rights of man goes on under the surface as it has gone on for many long years and the grave events of the day are thrown up by its deep-lying convulsions.

We who hold a similar attitude towards the great adventure of man may be called by our various states to different duties in the local struggles. While doing so we can also try to make the surface forces conform more closely to the underlying reality. And we can take heart from the knowledge that in the fundamental issue we are fighting on the same side.

[Dr. Zilliacus returned to Finland before seeing a proof of this article. We hope to publish the second part—a personal assessment of the current situation—next month.—ED.]

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Liveliness on the Home Front

Headmaster of a Village School

Scotland

IN January 1939 I was in charge of a survey of accommodation available for evacuees in a rural parish near Dundee. I soon learned how suddenly and extremely popular the more commodiously housed of our residents had become with their city friends and relations. For, should war come, householders with more rooms than heads could place their surplus rooms at the disposal of either relations and friends or Government evacuees.

I was no exception. Our two surplus rooms could be earmarked for my wife's mother, sister, and the then unborn nephew (or niece). At a pinch, however, we would place another evacuee in our boxroom (10 ft. by 4½ ft.).

Early in August I received forms showing that my parish was to receive 114 children and 48 adults. The number had been arrived at by including (a) a number of empty and in some cases condemned houses and (b) a number of occupied houses whose occupiers were not willing to accept evacuees. The number of rooms *offered* was 38, the number *available* about 80.

War clouds quickly gathered. Our biggest local mansion was now to be converted into a military hospital. Her Ladyship explained to me that as she was having 80 beds for casualties she would have to be relieved of her obligation to accept 10 evacuees. I immediately thought of our second biggest mansion, modestly graded as of 12-room capacity, though there were at least double that number of rooms and several of them huge. The occupant was a very pleasant gentleman of the post-war type, homely, a model employer. His household consisted of himself, his wife, two servants. The 'extra eight rooms' would be almost used up by seven and a half private evacuees, *i.e.* seven adults and one child. I wrote, I visited, I 'phoned. The replies were always courteous and friendly, but they assured me that the house was full up and that the Government had bungled the scheme.

Now one would have thought that there would have been a check on the statement that

the house was full when the registration forms were collected. But was the registration officer allowed to communicate any information to the reception officer? No, he was under an even stricter pledge of secrecy than the railway company, which was forbidden to tell me where the evacuees were coming from. I still have my doubts about the seven and a half private evacuees.

One other big house was required for a vague company of foresters, two others had invalids whose doctors feared grave consequences should children be allowed within the same building as the sickroom.

Over-crowding was now the sole solution. During the last few feverish days, I pestered all sorts of householders, willing and unwilling, to accept one or two children if they were already over-crowded, three if they were just comfortably filled. My wife was prepared to take two children in addition to her mother, sister, and baby niece.

Meanwhile, I tried several times to have meetings of billeting officers, but these were never all free on the same evening. They received their instructions more or less individually.

Poland was invaded on a Friday. I spent the day scrounging for bedding and had my first experience of recklessly pledging public credit in a deal with a furniture firm for an assortment of new and second-hand blankets.

On Saturday our private evacuees arrived. The household retired at 1 a.m. At 3 a.m., assuming all the others were asleep, I rose. After three hours' work I had a list of my available accommodation and how the 162 were to be crowded into it. Of course it would have been a dangerous breach of the policy of hush-hush were I to know beforehand how the party of evacuees would be grouped in families. But I made up my mind to go to the station, steal a look at the evacuation time-table and get a car to take me to some stop between Glasgow and the local station. In the train, I thought, Glasgow teachers and I could

attempt to fit the right families into the right rooms.

Whether that plan would have been a good one or the reverse I shall never know, for early on Sunday I received a message that the actual outbreak of hostilities had increased the number of evacuees and the 162 had risen to 253. The rest of Sunday had to be spent persuading the grossly overcrowded, the aged, and the sick to accept their share of evacuees, while good women hastily made palliasses and placed them in barns, sheds, and disused cottages. A final appeal to the two largest mansions brought—courteous replies!

When the train arrived, 50 cars were at the station, 50 keen helpers were getting in one another's way in the school, nearly 50 occupants of crowded cottages, proud to be included in the survey at the eleventh hour, were gathering to choose their 'lodgers'. The total number of evacuees was neither 162 nor 253, but 107.

One unfortunate result was that most of the evacuees landed in the smaller cottages. People who waited up expecting evacuees found that none came.

By 11.30 p.m. I was more than ready for bed; but while I was undressing the door bell rang. I answered it and learned that I was urgently wanted to speak on my neighbour's 'phone. The message was from the Chief Reception Officer. Could I, he asked, accept any more evacuees next day, and if so, how many? I replied that 40 was a maximum and, half-dressed and in sock soles, returned to my blacked-out home and bed.

When I awoke next morning it was to find on my doorstep two mothers and five children in tears. They had had a bad billet in a big farmhouse, where they had had to sleep on palliasses on the floor; they were going back to Glasgow. Feeling rather guilty, I found them better billets. But one mother left the next morning because we had no bed big enough for four, and she could not bear to have her three children separated from her in sleep. The other family were so contented that they remained until September 11th.

To return to my optimistic offer to receive 40 additional evacuees. I 'phoned to my chief suggesting a reduction. He replied that 59 were on the way. The majority of the 59,

tired and dispirited after two days on the road, took a dislike to our village. About 16 remained for varying periods up to a fortnight. Where the 40-odd others went I never learned.

During the first ten weeks of the war, 155 evacuees arrived. 24 of the original 107 remained during these ten weeks in their first billets, 12 who came during October remained until the time of writing. Altogether, 96 have left the parish, six to be transferred, 90 to return to Glasgow; 59 are still here.

Of the 59, 8 are in cottages otherwise unoccupied, 22 are in rather crowded homes, 8 are in comfortable homes, 5 are in a portion of a spacious farmhouse tenanted by a young man and wife, and 16 are in a farmhouse which has been rented by the County Council as a boarding-house.

The boarding-house was—and is—an experiment. It seemed a pity that along with overcrowding and the absence of encouragement from the big houses, a modern empty farmhouse should remain empty. The master in charge of the evacuees made the first move. The Glasgow and local Education Authorities were sympathetic. A number of visits to auction sales, where there was little demand for big furniture, secured bargains in wardrobes, tables, couches, chairs, hall-stand, linoleum, and kitchen utensils. The authorities supplied camp beds and blankets. The really kindly owner of the second biggest mansion gave a donation which covered the cost of crockery and cutlery. Glasgow Education Authority sent out two domestic science teachers, one school cleaner, and one helper, who became an enthusiastic team. The master in charge showed unsuspected gifts as a handyman: as a house-painter he could have taught Great Adolf a trick or two.

At present seven boys and four girls live in the house. The boys occupy a room 17 ft. by 13 ft. downstairs, the master sleeping in a small adjoining room. The girls are in a corresponding room upstairs, the ladies also sleep upstairs. Upstairs is a bathroom, which is out of bounds to boys except when they have bath-nights in rotation. There is also a W.C. for ladies and girls. Downstairs we have a W.C. for boys. Except on bath-nights they wash in the laundry.

The large kitchen serves also as dining-room, and a well-lit and well-fired sitting room, 17 ft. by 13 ft., is used for lessons and indoor games.

If the war lasts a year the boarding house will pay for itself. The County Council draws billeting money at the rate of 8/6 per child, 21/- per helper, and 5/- per teacher. The teachers contribute a further 16/- each per week. The first charge on this sum is rent at 10/- a week ; the rest is available for food and repayment of the initial expense of about £30. The teachers and cleaner receive from Glasgow their usual salaries.

My general conclusions regarding the billeting of children in the area are :

- (1) The rich with one consent will do anything rather than house evacuees. A notable exception is the Duke of Atholl.

- (2) The poor are more willing than the comfortably-off.
- (3) Almost every type of householder soon tires of evacuees.
- (4) Child evacuees are much more adaptable than mothers.
- (5) Compared with local children, Glasgow children are more intelligent, better fed, better clad, ruddier in complexion, more verminous, and less independent.
- (6) The boarding-house system, imperfect as it is, is an improvement on private billeting.
- (7) If the war develops in earnest our evacuation scheme is hopelessly inadequate.

Homes, Camps and Billets

Randal Keane

Speech Therapist,
Chesterfield Education Committee

ADJUSTMENT is a process, and yet in the last few months we have, implicitly at least, expected two definite groups of people to make an immediate adjustment to a set of very abnormal conditions. It is in the maladjustment to the problem on the part of both hosts and evacuees that we find one of the chief causes for the failure of evacuation. There are also other factors to be considered in apportioning the blame—namely, the hurried nature of the preparations, the hurried execution, also, of hurried plans and the numbers involved in the evacuation scheme.

Unfortunately the personal factor also plays a large part in such schemes and very easily wrecks a theoretically sound plan—as an example of this one has only to consider the social status of the majority of evacuees and to encounter the reception area officials' naïve conception of their duties.

If the evacuation situation is to be readjusted in anticipation of prolonged war conditions there are two possibilities which can be examined with a view to their replacing the present impracticable arrangements. These are:

- (1) Rebilleting.
- (2) Camps.

To be of any value our choice must be based on a sound psychological principle and the principle to be emphasized is that a normal happy home life, supplemented by the services of a good modern day school is the best training ground for normal children. The normal happy home assures direction for the children in it through discipline made comfortable and acceptable by the infusion of intelligent love and enlightened understanding. Children who grow up under such discipline face life with good habits of cleanliness, of bodily control, of temper control and with a reasonable amount of consideration for each other. They are likely, also, to approach life with a certain degree of self-confidence and to be able to face life's demands with equanimity and adaptability.

If we admit frankly that the evacuated children are not a good 'sample' of the population, we can realize why evacuation has failed ; it is because so many of the homes from which the children have been evacuated are not normally happy ; because so many schools are not good modern day schools ; because so many parents have failed to achieve intelligent love and enlightened understanding ; because

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so many children have not been reared to good habits of personal hygiene and social adjustment. Such abnormal conditions demand some modification of treatment which, however, must be based on our main contention that the good home with its natural real life experiences is the best training ground for the young.

The positively successful examples of billeting are rather suggestive when one comes to consider the possibility of a rebilleting scheme, and there is a good deal to be learned from them.

The wife of a leading resident of a seaside village accepted as evacuees, four boys, all related and aged eight, nine, nine, and twelve years. At first they slept in one large room and had meals in the servants' hall. The eldest boy was put in charge of the other three and entrusted with the task of seeing that they kept themselves clean and their room tidy. On the second day one was discovered to have impetigo and was immediately isolated—not expelled. A close watch was kept on the habits of the other three—certain undesirable factors had to be dealt with—but at the end of a fortnight, two were put in another bedroom and all were received at the family table. Thus the children were given ample time to adjust themselves to the ways of a new house before being faced with the problem of adjusting themselves to the members of the family.

Two girls of eleven and twelve years from the worst quarter of an industrial town were billeted with a cottager—an elderly woman living alone. Her heart failed her when she saw her evacuees, but being a wise woman she changed, not her guests, but her plans. Temporary beds were devised, the girls were shown a dainty bedroom and told it would be theirs when they were clean enough to occupy it. They were shown how to become clean, and a few weeks later a chance visitor found the two seated by their hostess learning to darn, using gaily coloured wool on a pair of old grey stockings. They were occupying their room and keeping it fairly tidy; they were also helping, albeit clumsily, with the housework.

An old couple in a country town were forced to take evacuees. Three girls—seven, eleven, and thirteen years old—were billeted with them, although the wife was crippled with rheumatism. The girls were from an industrial area but came clean and bright. Their hostess told them they must see to themselves—the husband showed them where things were to be found and made them free of the small house. On the first night they had to make up their own beds, see to their meal, etc. As the eleven-year-old said, 'We do this at home anyway, and even P. (the seven-year-old) can set the fire.'

They were of the same hard-working, self-respecting type of stock as the old couple, and their host announced to the billeting officer later, 'It was a good day for us when we took them in'.

By sheer chance, it must be admitted, the girls found themselves in circumstances they could manage and all is well.

If rebilleting is to be considered it should not be impossible to make such a happy issue a matter of deliberate allocation rather than of chance selection. Rebilleting is a possibility provided it is run in conjunction with a system of 'clearing stations' or central billets for those children who demand special measures. The danger here is that the child would be kept in the central billet for a limited period and then be sent out to a private billet—by which time it has become labelled and has become a sort of institution case. To be of any therapeutic value such central billets or camps would necessarily retain the children for the duration, and this for two reasons :

(1) It would be extremely difficult to find hosts for children who had been labelled as, *e.g.* 'bed-wetters'. In one area where such a central billet has been arranged, no child has as yet been drafted into a new billet—they have either remained in the central billet or returned home.

(2) Where the children are really problem cases, the adjustment question will always be a difficulty until adequate treatment has been given, and this is a lengthy business. Problems of organization would make it impracticable to take a child into a therapeutic camp with the avowed intention of rebilleting it later, unless it could be assessed how long a period in camp would be required.

Turning to examine the possibility of camps for evacuees, one immediately faces the charge that in this suggestion there can be seen the seeds of a future communist bias in education. But when one considers that one of the main objections to communism on the part of the average individual is that it involves forced association, surely it becomes evident that this charge can best be levelled not against the camp, but against the billeting system by which householders are compelled to take in evacuees, and evacuees are compelled to reside in an arranged billet—a more typical example of the communist attitude would be hard to find.

A similar charge likely to be brought against the idea of camps might be that it involves the

destruction of family life, and that even the U.S.S.R. has tended in the last two years to move back towards the family unit. But the temporary break-up of family life is an unfortunate fact which we must inevitably face while we endeavour at the same time to find the best substitute for it.

Surely the fact of the school's being able to keep together as a unit should be of the greatest assistance to the child in compensating for his temporary removal from the family circle. The school has always been admitted as the first enlargement of the family circle to which the child must adjust himself—the evacuee has already made the necessary adjustment to school and the camp would provide for the child, not a further difficulty, but a closer linking up of the two lives—home and school—which he is already living. The value of a collaboration between home and school has been shown in the important work done by Parents' and Teachers' Associations—it is not unreasonable to expect that the coincidence of home life and school life in the camp would produce striking results.

One of the main advantages of the Public School is that the children live under a uniform discipline—the camp would also possess this advantage, and in addition that of starting from scratch, unhampered by the so-called traditions of the Public School. Whereas the latter is limited by its avowed aim of inculcating a code, the camp would be a free and fertile ground for training the children to decent living.

A well-run camp would afford the family life that is so imperative for healthy development—and it would cater for all children, normal and abnormal. For at least two reasons, this latter factor is important.

(1) It gives the abnormal child the opportunity he so badly needs, of mixing, under supervision, with normal children.

(2) It avoids the risk of turning the normal child into an abnormal one by leaving him to the vagaries of evacuation hosts to whom he is no more than an encumbrance.

The camp safeguards family ties if for no other reason than that it affords greater visiting facilities for parents and allows for the possibility of related children being accommodated

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together—an arrangement only infrequently possible under the billeting system. Requisites for such camps would include trained workers who have the psychological commonsense to look for temperamental characteristics in children and also health and hygiene services to eradicate physical causes of maladjustment. Possibly a system of social intercourse with homes and families in the district might be built up.

The idea of the camp would be to foster a spirit of self-help, self-reliance and mutual assistance, and the daily programme would necessarily be arranged to this end. The children would each have duties and responsibilities connected with the actual organization of the daily life and, in addition, the school work would be carried on.

It must be admitted, however, that the personal factor will again loom large, and the success of a camp will depend on the enthusiasm of the organizers. There is no reason why training camps should not be arranged where teachers could be shown the general lines of procedure before being sent out to organize and teach in camps.

The effect of camp life is evident not only in the children but in the teachers.

Two teachers and one attendant have been evacuated with a group of thirty-two mentally defective and physically defective children. They occupy summer camp quarters, and their battle against vermin, enuresis, and impetigo has been intense. Victory is in sight—physically defectives have improved, mentally defectives have been found to have each some grain of sense, and there is a spirit of mutual assistance abroad. The remarks of the teachers are, however, particularly illuminating :

‘After twenty-two years of teaching, I now know how external to the children are the causes of bad behaviour.’

‘N. was a little demon in school but now that her head is clean, she is positively angelic.’

‘I’ll go back to school now to look for social causes.’

The educational opportunities proffered by camp life are almost incalculable. Formal education can be carried on and amplified immeasurably by various activities. The opportunities are unique—the children will respond—the only danger lies in the timidity of the teachers ; the number of these who will venture into the realms of experimental education is regrettably small.

The war of 1914-1918 was spoken of as a ‘War to end wars’—no such term has been applied to the present conflict ; it would seem that evacuation is a problem which we shall have always with us. We can, however, make positive use of the hideous necessity, and it does not appear too extreme to envisage the more positive uses to which we may put evacuation quarters in times of peace. One can visualize the city schools spending the spring to autumn months in country camps, or a school from one area being transported to another part of the country for a certain period. In other words, we can see opportunities which are limited at present to the few being made available to all our children—and surely this is nothing more than the satisfaction of the demands of Democracy.

It is not the children who will fail but those who are responsible for them ; those who like to linger on the paths of tradition. To them one can only recommend the fine words of the late Kenneth Graham :

‘The days pass and never return . . . Take the adventure, heed the call now ere the irrevocable moment passes. ’Tis but a banging of the door, a blithesome step forward and you are out of the old life and into the new.’

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The Case for Billets

P. A. Barons

Headmaster, Woodlands Park School, N.15. Author of 'Backwardness in School', 'Forward to Reading', etc.

Now that the 'settling down' process of evacuation has become more or less stabilized, it is possible to view the events since that fateful September 1st in their correct perspective. During the first week or two after the exodus, there is no doubt but that the vast majority of teachers would have voted wholeheartedly for the School Camp in preference to the Billet. I very much question whether in view of their experiences they would do so now. It is obvious that any kind of accommodation for evacuees is open to a great deal of criticism, but the question really is, 'What billeting arrangements have, on balance, greater advantages?'

Let us freely admit that in many ways the school camp has numerous decided advantages. Under the conditions that an ideal camp should afford, there ought to be a healthy corporate and novel life. In such circumstances, medical, educational and social provisions should make for the general comfort, welfare and happiness of most children. In camp the 'team spirit' can be fostered and utilized and each child then becomes a valuable unit, working for the good of the whole school machine. Selfishness has no place in camp life, and the time-table ought to be as scientifically balanced and varied as the food dietary. It is easy to visualize that cleanliness of body and clothing might be advantageously enforced and adequate sanitary arrangements provided. In addition, the school camp can effect those repairs or replacements of clothing and garments that long wear or ill-usage makes essential.

Those teachers fortunate enough to be in charge in camp have unrivalled opportunities to learn more of their young charges. The classroom rarely reflects a true image of child life, it only presents a picture scratched on the surface to be admired or criticized by the teacher. To know children intimately it is essential to live with them, to study their likes and dislikes, to appreciate their joys and sorrows, to recognize their fears and obsessions,

to fortify their strength and help their weaknesses.

In these directions camp life allows of unlimited opportunities that no other set of circumstances can possibly provide.

But how and when and where can be found all the school camps necessary to house, educate, and satisfy the countless children of evacuated areas? What of the prohibitive cost of erecting camps, and what of the time necessary to provide these desirable places? Is there ever a camp that is never cold or damp or dismal? Is it possible to provide privacy for adolescents and adequate care for the very young? These are some of the obvious queries which race to the mind of all interested adults. Again, is it the intention of camp advocates to erect schools within the camps themselves, or to build camps within reasonable reach of existing school premises? The school camp, viewed as a recreational or even temporary educational venture, is a seasonal asset of undoubted worth, but our winters, unfortunately, are far too severe for the often fragile health of our children to be exposed to them. Then again there must be a certain regimentation within the sphere of camp life. The child stands in real danger of being moulded to a pattern. However much we admire the 'boarding school' product it is clearly impossible to inculcate even its desirable features into children who have what might perhaps be called 'a fish and chip' attitude of mind. Against such endeavours there are bound to be certain types of children aggressive enough to rebel; others may be shy enough to shrink from adapting themselves and become distressed through their emotional difficulties. Every child has certain essential needs of freedom, laxity, and affection; it is difficult indeed to believe that all teachers are so imbued with the 'milk of human kindness' that they are adaptable enough to supply all the essential and intimate wants of children.

The dull child, for example, will enter the

school camp with his old tag of 'dullness' still affixed to him. Here, apparently, he will not have the chance of forgetting or of making new adjustments in a fresh environment peopled with interesting and well-disposed children and adults.

It is difficult to see how the school camp can provide for all these fresh experiences of new friends, new happenings, and new explorations that each child ought to meet often alone and unaided.

A child's adaptation to life is decided by a constant stream of fresh experiences, against which he often has to struggle unaided. Frequently he must think and act independently; he must, in short, develop his own individuality; he must be thrown on his own resources and not, preferably, be placed in circumstances that fail to conjure up such problems for him.

Camp life would accentuate difficulties for the sexes, and generally, would fail to provide a suitable environment to make for active healthy, adaptable childhood.

Now what of the billets? Can they give some things that are more desirable than the camps? I think so. Apart from the maternal and fatherly care that young children and adolescents particularly need, there is always the 'mothering' of children, which is an essential part of their development to satisfy their need for affection.

In the billet the child usually secures this maternal care, and furthermore it can take its rightful place in the home and its complete social life. After all, the home is the basis of the whole social structure and most children, for example, would prefer to have a newspaper as substitute for a tablecloth if they were happy and understood within that home. The child is but an adult in miniature; he likes to play at 'grown up', but rarely reproduces any undesirable feature of *home* life. Occasionally, in play he conjures up the idea of chastisement. More often than not he apes the teacher at school giving the cane! Distasteful things linger longest in childhood's memory.

The evacuee, in the billet, meets new conditions: he sees new faces; he forms new contacts. Whatever record he has, rightly or wrongly, gained at school is unknown in his

fresh environment. His page of life is unsullied; he has a new chance to succeed for he is never reminded of past shortcomings nor frightened by recalling bygone punishments.

Particularly do the dull benefit by this change of environment and seem to fit into the concrete life of the countryside with marked success. This they do, fortified by the consideration and kindness of their foster-parents and because the countryside is open for their inquisitive gaze. A ride on a bike, on a cart, or in a car, on roads bereft of traffic is a delightfully new experience for many a poor town-child.

Frequently do the 'aunts' and 'uncles' of evacuees take their new nieces and nephews on Saturday or Sunday jaunts, and make the countryside real and living to them by answering their numerous questions.

In no less degree does the sense of pride and housewifery enter into the well-being of children in billets. Mrs. X., who has a young charge, will not have it breathed that Mrs. Y. looks after her child more proficiently. Many an article of clothing or a pair of boots has been bought for a deserving child because of the high sense of duty which Mrs. X. possesses, or because of her strong desire to see her evacuee as well dressed or shod as other children.

In many other ways, too, do foster parents guide and defend their children. They exhibit deep affection by their ready forgiveness for petty childish errors; they display kindness in their entertainment of town-parents visiting their evacuee children and, most important of all, are readily willing to discuss intimate questions of health or difficulties. These factors are of immense importance and can more readily be straightened out by foster-parents in billets than in the atmosphere of a communal camp existence.

It is freely admitted that many billets are undesirable, but generally fresh billets are found when genuine complaints mature. Some billets are unclean or ill-kept, others are neglectful. Yet, on the other hand, we know that some children are unbilletable. They are, or perhaps were, inclined to be verminous; they were eneuretic, or difficult, or delinquent,

or distressed. Of these, however, there are only a small percentage.

Yet children still return home in procession, it may be urged. That is so, but my experience is that it is generally not the neglect of the child or its unhappiness that induces such a return. Parents from town readily think of the unsuitable billet as an excuse, when, if they were honest, they would admit their own faulty parent-child relationship and confess to their own sense of loss because their child is away from them. Undoubtedly, occasional billeting problems are due to hasty or ill-conceived choice of billeting officers, some of whom are ill-fitted for their task and may personally be disliked by foster-parents. But in such a far-flung scheme of evacuation there must arise many difficulties of a minor medical or psychological nature with which rural districts cannot cope. Towns have clinics for petty ailments; cases of sores or impetigo would possibly not have attained such large numbers had there been ready facilities for treatment. That, of course, like other matters, needed to

be brought into line through experience. Matters improve as time goes on.

No doubt many cases of unrest will disappear with the absorption of children into full-time school sessions. To occupy the time of a child is one of the essential factors for his complete satisfaction, nevertheless certain children have difficulties that only the expert can diagnose and treat. For many reasons the psychologist becomes of paramount importance in this new and untried field of experimental housing. Not only do various children need help, but their environmental conditions need improving, and the foster-parent requires a commonsense talk in clear and concise language.

Because a section of the dissatisfied have been over-loud in their condemnation of evacuation in billets, it cannot detract from the general over-loud in their condemnation of evacuation soundness of a scheme which it gives to many a child definitely better conditions of life. Unquestionably, billet life has secured a greater measure of health and happiness in this new-found world and fresh venture.

Camps for Peace and War

Gordon and Flora Stephenson

**Organizers of the Camps Exhibition,
The Housing Centre,
13 Suffolk Street, S.W.1**

FOR several years past there has been a decided increase of public interest in the subject of camps in Great Britain. The enthusiasm has been divided between two definite fields of activity. On the one hand there is the family holiday camp which now enjoys great popularity. On the other is the school camp, just as worthy an object of promotion, but one which is succeeding more slowly.

In the spring of this year a Camps Exhibition was held at the Housing Centre in London. Realizing that there did exist this growing interest in camps of all kinds, the Housing Centre decided to put before the public the case for camps. The Exhibition included a review of the social and economic conditions which call for a camps programme, not only for the millions of school children from densely-populated areas, but for the working man and

his family. The dual role of camps, and the part they can play in peace or in war was clearly explained. A large section of the Exhibition was devoted to camp schemes which have been carried out in this country and abroad. The conclusion included proposals for school and family camps and a scheme for organizing and planning a camps programme on a national basis.

The most common type of family camp in England to-day is the commercial one. These have sprung up, literally, by the hundred, in the last few years. Although the average commercial camp provides cheap and good holidays, it is still far above the financial means of the worker. The Camps Exhibition presented the case for the great mass of working people, both those who are already receiving holidays with pay and those who soon will be (or would have been in peace time). It made

clear the fact that a Government-aided system of family camps would be of enormous social value in peace, and could serve a useful war-time purpose as well. Family camps could be used by mothers and pre-school children, or pregnant mothers, from the evacuation areas, in case of war. Many of the more luxurious commercial holiday camps, as well as some of those sponsored by private groups, have actually been taken over by the Government for war use. In some cases they are being used for the internment of aliens or war prisoners. Some form of communal facilities of the camp sort would certainly be more suitable than billets for the evacuated mothers who seem to be the most unwilling and, at the same time, the most unwanted, of the refugees.

In dealing with the subject of school camps, the Exhibition showed examples of two important categories which are well established in Great Britain. There are numerous school camps run by Local Education Authorities for the children under their supervision. Accommodation varies greatly, some of the camps consisting mainly of tents or marquees with one or two permanent communal buildings, but the majority are of the army hut type. Many of these would not be suitable for war-time use by evacuated children. The promulgation of school camps by Local Authorities suffers from lack of any central organization which can establish standards of design and construction and look to the management and maintenance of the buildings.

The camps run by the School Camps Service of the National Council of Social Service, on the other hand, benefit by having a large national organization behind them. The camps, made possible by a grant from the Commissioner for the Special Areas, are used by elementary school children from the depressed parts of the country. Local authorities whose children use the camps have charge of the social and educational activities of the children, but the practical administration is carried out by the School Camps Service. There are 16 of these N.C.S.S. camps. Of the six most recently erected the average capacity is 336, and the average cost per child of construction and equipment is £37 4s. The buildings each include dormitories for about

50 children, dining hall and kitchens, ablution blocks, sick bay, assembly hall, teachers and staff quarters, etc. Some of the camps are heated and used as winter residential schools.

The Government Camps Bill, authorizing the building of 50 camps, including seven in Scotland, became law almost immediately after the opening of the Exhibition. Although it is fair to say that the Government was stimulated to action by the imminent threat of war, it is quite true that the machinery which the Bill has established could provide the basis for an excellent and extensive camps programme. In fact, Earl De la Warr, in a foreword to the handbook of the Camps Exhibition says about the Government legislation: 'Almost alone among our war preparations this proposal offers valuable opportunities for peace time as well'. Whether for peace or for war the scope of the Camps Bill is inadequate at present. The 50 camps, each intended for 350 children, would have taken 17,500 in all. This, if doubled for war-time use, is only 2 per cent. of the number of children normally living in evacuation areas who should now be removed to safer places. The experiment will, however, produce valuable experience in planning, construction, and management. It seems now that between 30 and 40 of the camps can be built for the money available. Two or three are already completed, and most of the others should be ready by the end of the year.

After nearly three months of war we have had some opportunity for examining the success or failure of the evacuation of large sections of the population from the danger areas. The Government had planned to evacuate about three million people from the largest towns and cities in England. When evacuation actually was carried out during the first four days of September, only one and a half millions took part. Of course, many private individuals made their own arrangements as did business firms and Government Departments. The evacuees under the Government schemes are of three types: school children organized in school units in the care of teachers and helpers, mothers with babies or pre-school children, and expectant mothers.

The evacuation scheme has worked well in many cases, and the billeting system has proved

satisfactory in some places. Obviously, where existing accommodation is available and reasonably good, it should be used. This applies not only to sleeping quarters for children and mothers, but to the buildings so badly needed for educational and social activities. The educational system of the country has been upset by evacuation, and no steps have yet been taken to remedy it. Schools in the reception areas are often inadequate for their normal peace-time purposes. Now they are forced to work on a shift system which is unsatisfactory as a permanent solution. Both the evacuees and the local children must have facilities for full education, if we are really preparing for a war of three years or longer. In most reception areas the promised communal mid-day meal is not being provided for the evacuees. If the children were attending a school building for a full day this would be a possibility which could help the billeting system to function more smoothly.

It is plain that the most urgent need of our evacuated children is for schools. In some cases, schools have been commandeered by the military authorities, making even a scanty system of education impossible. The full use of existing education facilities in reception areas should be ensured. In villages and towns where the billeting system is working sufficiently well, new educational buildings must be provided so that the evacuated children receive their full school programme. The buildings should include provision for serving a communal mid-day meal. For children who have been evacuated to unsuitable country billets or to fairly large and unsafe towns, some type of camp school with living and educational accommodation must be built.

Where mothers and small children are concerned a new building programme is also necessary. In communities where billets are satisfactory there is a great need for some type of social centre which can provide recreation and communal meals. Buildings of this kind would be of permanent peace-time value to the usual inhabitants of the locality. The building of nursery school camps would make it possible for many mothers to return to their homes and their husbands, happy in the knowledge that their babies were safe and well cared for.

If these urgent needs are not satisfied it will be impossible to check the steady homeward trek of the evacuees. In many areas 50 per cent., and in some cases 75 per cent., have returned to the danger zones. Since over half of the mothers and children never left the evacuation areas, at least three-quarters must still remain in the big towns which are most exposed to bombing attacks. It is reasonable to expect that, when the war begins in earnest, there will be a fresh wave of evacuees from the towns. In addition to a building programme along the lines briefly indicated, there should be a redistribution of evacuees already within the reception areas. Those who are in safe spots nearest to the towns should be moved farther into the country so that their places may be made available for new evacuees who will come in a hurry if bombing starts. Others should be scattered more evenly over the reception areas than they are at present. Many evacuees have been sent to urban districts which include county towns, resorts, industrial towns, and smaller cathedral or market towns. Clearly these people should be removed to country districts and accommodated in billets where possible or in new school, or nursery school, camps where other housing is not available.¹

It may be argued that such an extensive building programme as a successful evacuation scheme would seem to require would be impracticable in war time. The Government will, in the three years' war for which they are preparing, spend £60 in weekly payments (excluding food) for lodging a mother with her child. It would cost little more than this to provide adequate camps or hostels which would be a happier solution than billets and would remain for many years as valuable peace-time assets. The same would be true of other new buildings such as schools, school camps, community centres, and extended health services. Money spent for these would not merely be poured out to meet a sudden national emergency, but would bring forth definite social benefits for the future.

In war time there is bound to be a shortage of some building materials. At present it

¹ From a 'Report on the Accommodation of Evacuees in the Reception Areas', compiled by the Evacuation Committee of the Association of Architects, Surveyors, and Technical Assistants.

would be difficult or impossible to obtain much timber for camp buildings, for instance, and of course steel would be scarce. But there would certainly be adequate local building materials in many parts of the country which could be used by local labour. Such labour is less likely to be engaged on emergency war work. It is estimated, in fact, that there are now 100,000 people unemployed in the building trades. In a large-scale building programme, some form of prefabricated construction of units manufactured at a central plant would be most economical and rapid. In so far as suitable materials are obtainable this method should be adopted.

In conclusion it must be stated that the

evacuation scheme cannot function successfully in its present form. Further evacuation must be planned for if we are to protect mothers and children from the dangers of modern aerial warfare. Although we have not yet experienced any serious bombing attacks on our large towns, it is not safe to expect that, in the course of a long and intense war which we still have reason to expect, the enemy will not make use of their air force for harrying Great Britain on the home front. In order that the children from evacuation areas may be safe and may continue with their normal educational programme, it is plainly necessary that the building of new educational and camp facilities should commence at once.

A Camp in Czechoslovakia

A. Koplovitz

**Lately Children's Camp Organizer,
Czechoslovakia**

FOR three years—from 1936 until seven months ago—I was in Czechoslovakia, a refugee from Germany. I had already had some ten years' experience there of organizing children's camps under the former regime and got permission and funds from the 'Union for the Care of Worker's Children' to put my scheme for group education into practice. I organized their camps for three years, the last being held in 1938. I was given 305 children, whose ages ranged between 6 and 15, to organize into what was virtually a holiday camp, though the State Holiday Care was prepared to accept the scheme for evacuation camps should Czechoslovakia have defended herself in 1938.

I had charge of the children from May until September, and it was therefore possible for the camp to be a camp in the true sense of the word: we lived in tents on the bank of a river. Some of these tents were large and could accommodate a number of children, others had room for two children only. The 'staff' numbered eighteen to twenty, all of them under forty years of age. Naturally they were carefully selected and instructed beforehand in their duties: for six months previous to the opening of the camp we met for two hours three times a week and had lectures on psychology, hand-

work, and so forth. We had with us a young doctor, like the rest of us extremely interested in questions of psychology, and a sports instructor. After the first year we used all these tutors as 'leaders' for the children of the camp *in town* throughout the year. We met every week for lectures so that we never lost touch with our camp children and the whole year was for the children a time of looking forward to and of preparing and collecting for next year's camp. The children's government operated all the year round even in Prague.

It should here be emphasized that the children we had to deal with not only had no previous experience of camp or community life other than school, but spoke a diversity of languages as they came from all over the country. It was, therefore, not to be wondered at that when they arrived, tired, dirty (many of them came from homes where the parents had been unemployed for years), they were completely at a loss what to do and many of them were in tears. We had the tents all ready for them and they had come with parcels of food from home or from the State Holiday Care: beyond making these provisions for them we left them to find their own solution of the perplexity in which they found themselves. Presently this was voiced by a few

children who came to us and asked, 'What shall we do?' The reply was that this was their own camp, they were running it and must decide such questions for themselves. We also explained that since we could not speak to 305 children they must appoint a representative from among themselves to deal with us. Presently one boy had an idea, borrowed from his school: he decided to line the children up according to size. This was done and then a girl of 12, who was very small, finding herself next to a boy of 7, began to complain, saying that she did not want to stand next to such a young child, that she would be bored talking to him and so forth. The children then decided to line up in ages and I took this opportunity of speaking to them about living accommodation. We made it clear to the children that it was better to live in smaller communities and we organized two camps, one for children up to ten, the other for children up to fifteen. Each camp had several small groups, forming together fourteen to sixteen groups of 15 to 20 children each. The two camps had a different educational programme. Of course the older children wanted to sleep in the large tents. I suggested that these were far more suitable for the small children who might be frightened if they were separated and that this arrangement would facilitate our task of going round to see that they were warmly covered up—I thought it early to discuss sex questions with them—and this was agreed upon, the older children taking the two-bed tents.

The next day the question of food arose. We supplied them with sugar, butter and rice only and they got the same for every meal. Naturally, there were immediate protests. We asked them thereupon what they would like to eat and promptly received a variety of replies, each child wanted something different. I explained to them that this was impossible and suggested that each group should appoint the most 'gourmet' among them to the kitchen committee, and from that time onwards those appointed, together with the cook and the head caterer, formed the kitchen committee, the bill of fare being part of the daily bulletin, as will be shown below.

The next step was taken when the sports

instructor started to play with an exercise wheel. The children looked on for a bit and soon wanted to play too. Thus the sports group was formed. This was the beginning of the occupation scheme, the most important of all to my mind in a camp of this kind, since children who are bored rapidly develop into hooligans. Of the occupation schemes which ensued, one of the most absorbing proved to be the learning of world history and, in particular, of the history of their own country. This was done as follows: in the morning the tutor lectured on the subject; in the afternoon we acted what we had learnt in the morning. One of the chief advantages of this scheme (quite apart from the fact that the audience, with the prospect of acting the heroic tales they were hearing before them, would listen entranced to the lecturer) was that it became clear from the acting of the children whether they had or had not understood the lecture: then often those who had understood would help those who had not. These 'lessons' became, so to speak, the centre of camp life, the later-formed writing, dancing, singing, recitation, and dramatic circles, even the business circle, recapitulated the theme of the day's lecture. I should like to add here that the subject for the day was always planned ahead by the staff and that discussion of this often continued far into the night. The final decision rested, however, with the children; the education committee was formed to this end.

To give some idea of the organization arrived at by the children, I will here briefly indicate the activities of the various units. The work committee was responsible for the work of the camp generally; the cleanliness committee for keeping it and its occupants clean, and very efficient it was, examining the necks, ears, etc., of children and tutors too, and putting offenders against cleanliness under the weir. Tents also were examined and a tent found very clean three times in succession won a white flag for the group of which it formed part; three times dirty its group received a dirty flag which it had to carry with it all day, a great disgrace. (I should perhaps add here that we had treated cases of vermin on arrival with paraffin; children who out of laziness—and

not for some physical or nervous reason—soiled their beds we would wake and conduct to the lavatory several times in a night until they abandoned the habit.) Each group had a graph, showing its achievements in work and discipline.

Another feature of the camp was the Agitka, a committee for good ideas. The camp leader, a boy of 12, came to us one day and said, 'At our business meetings very good ideas are often brought forward, but we cannot put them into practice. What shall we do with them?' They decided, therefore, that when a good idea was hatched a drum and trumpet should be sounded to call all the 305 children together and that the idea should be made public. To show the workings of this I will cite one example. It was a rule among the staff that anyone who hit a child must leave immediately. One young tutor who was very much liked by everyone lost his temper with a boy to such an extent that he boxed his ears; whereupon, without saying a word to us he packed his things and then insisted, in spite of our protests, that he must leave. In the meantime, however, the children, getting wind of the affair, took his bags away and buried them to prevent his leaving. We protested, saying that as we did not interfere in their affairs, they must not interfere in ours. This gave rise to a demonstration: the children paraded in the approved style with banners and we, seeing that they were seriously concerned about the matter, allowed it to go before the children's court of justice. The tutor was condemned to wear for four hours a placard about his neck, stating simply, 'I have been rude'. However, shortly afterwards, the drum and trumpet of the Agitka summoned the children together; a boy was brandishing a German paper, an illustration in which had shown him that this form of punishment was favoured under reactionary governments, whereupon the placard was immediately removed.

We also had A.R.P. training and a day and a night guard, the former chosen from among the younger children, the latter from the older ones. This was considered an honour and had a special uniform.

The children's Parliament, at which the lightest and gravest matters were discussed,

was formed of the 'chairmen' of the above-mentioned groups and of all committees and circles, so that the responsible body numbered fifty children and twenty adults. The other children were allowed to attend as an audience. The government of the camp was done by the president, Jirka Vocalek and his Bureau, elected by the Parliament. They gave out each day's Bulletin. It gave the children a feeling not only of freedom to make their own regulations, but of responsibility. They were rigorous in maintaining their own discipline and, of course, their jurisdiction extended to the tutors; moreover, when their parents came to visit them, as they did on the average once a month on a day set aside for the purpose, the children agreed to devote their rest-time to them; they would not, however, allow them to interfere with their self-imposed duties for the rest of the day.

The court of Justice has already been mentioned: perhaps it would be well to show its working through an example. I had been away and, though returning to the camp after the usual bathing time, I proceeded to have a wash. However, I was caught doing so and brought before the court for breach of discipline, *i.e.* not keeping to the day's time-table. As their 'confidence' tutor, they said, this was a grave offence and they condemned me to eating last of everyone for the whole of the day. The proceedings of the court were always amazingly just; I found, too, that children punished by other children have not the same sense of inferiority as when this is done by their elders.

The sex question was very easily overcome; in the first place by telling the children the truth. We had the girls and boys separately to begin with as we thought they would want to ask different questions. Then we had them together and answered all their questions frankly. Such matters were discussed in what we called the 'black hours'. We met at 9 p.m. and chose this time purposely so that the children could not see each other and possibly get embarrassed. There was a remarkable atmosphere of confidence between children and tutor. In the second place we were enormously helped by the children's feeling for the group. We did nothing to prevent boys and girls going off for walks together, but by doing so they would

have missed something that the group was doing, so that they did not care to leave its friendly atmosphere.

To give the reader an impression of how the day was passed, here are two Bulletins for the day, from which he will see that we were not only always occupied and entertained, but that we had not so much time as we would have liked.

DAY 1

- Guard : Night guard, Benes group ; day guard, Huss group.
- 7.30 Get up.
- 7.40 Gym. for all.
Washing, Cleanliness inspection, preparation for breakfast.
- 8.40 Breakfast : cocoa, bread and butter.
- 9.0 Morning roll call, flag hoisted.
- 9.10 Lecture on Development of Handicrafts in our country and in the world. The education committee has succeeded in getting together a mass of illustrated material on the subject. Lecturer : Mr. Sedlacek, assisted by Karel Kut, Masaryk group. The theatre group will show us how a man is pronounced master of his craft.
During break, 2nd breakfast : bread and jam, milk.
- 12.0 Bathing. Camp 1, river ; Camp 2, small lake. Supervision and rescue work ; Camp 1, Zizka group ; Camp 2, Masaryk group.
- 12.40 Lunch. Bortsch soup ; Schubanki with onions and butter.
- 1.0-3.0 Rest hours. Those who cannot sleep may read or write. Speaking or noise forbidden.
- 3.0 10 minutes' gym.
- 3.15 Organized play. Head Tutor : Mr. Reimann, and education committee. Theme is a surprise.
Coffee, bread.
- 5.0 Games. Zizka, Benes, Huss, and France groups prepare for camp championship in football. Other groups, light athletics. Sports committee in charge.
- 6.40-7.40 Free for everyone to do what they like.
- 7.40 Supper : tea, sandwich, milk pudding with chocolate.
Camp 1 : Evening talk and sleep.
- 9.0-9.30 Camp 2 : Free discussion on topical events. Evening roll call, flag lowered. Camp sleeps under the guard of China group.
- #### DAY 2. SELF-GOVERNMENT DAY, PARLIAMENT
- Guard : Tutor's group, night guard ; Lamb's group, day guard.
- 7.30 Get up.
- 7.40 Gym. for all.
Washing, Cleanliness inspection.
- 8.40 Breakfast : milk, rolls with butter and jam.
Preparation of Parliament.

- 9.10 Meeting of all committees ; sports ; cleanliness, food, work, guard, education, entertainment, Agitka.
- 9.10 Meeting of all circles : theatre, drawing, dancing, singing, recitation, literary, wall newspaper, nature study, physics, chemistry, Czech, Russian, English, and French, to prepare Parliament.
- 9.10 Meeting of tutors.
- 9.10 Meeting of camp Bureau.
- 9.10 Camp 1 (children up to ten) clean camp, prepare Parliament.
- 10-15 Meeting of Parliament.
- Programme :
- Hoisting the flag.
- Introduction of a new committee.
- Report of all group leaders.
- Report of all committee leaders.
- Report of the Camp President, Jirka Vocalek and other members of the camp Bureau.
- Report of the head caterer, Mr. Kriz, and of the chief cook.
- Report of the confidence tutor, Mr. Jonk.
- Report of the Board of Tutors.
- Mr. Jonk speaks on Children's Democracy and Discipline.
- General discussion.
- Agitka distributes prizes for new and good ideas.
- During break, second breakfast : tea, cakes, fruit.
- Good and bad groups and group members' names.
- Judging and awards.
- Report of the children's Court of Justice.
- A tutor tells stories.
- Parliament closed with songs and music.

(We advise all group and committee leaders to be well prepared with notices and reports. The circle leaders are allowed to present any outstanding success achieved in their circle to the audience, but such performances or experiments must be reported to the camp Bureau before Parliament opens. Suggestions for a change or a new item in the programme must be made to the Agitka by 10.15 a.m.)

- 1.0 Lunch : meat soup, pork chops, prunes.
- 1.30-3.30 Rest hours.
- 3.30 Milk, bread and butter.
- 4.0 Lecture by Mr. Jonk on 'Influence of topical events and politics on new inventions, steamships, telephone, etc.'
- 6.0-7.0 Organized play.
- 7.10 Supper : tea with milk, bread and cold meat, raw vegetables.
- 7.30 Black Hour. Programme :
Everyone tells us the story of his life.
You may ask anything you like.
- 9.0 Evening roll call. Singing and dancing till 10.0.
Sleep.
- The sense of responsibility the children

developed was amazing. An example of this occurred when a delegate from the Ministry of Health of Czechoslovakia came to visit us. He was received by the guard and asked to wait, the teachers being in conference behind the camp. The leader, aged 12, was summoned by the guard and, saying that he was in charge of the camp and would show the distinguished visitor round, proceeded to do so with great efficiency. On another occasion, when a boy was elected to the leadership, the children told me that they would like now to say how they had 'cured' him. I then learnt that this boy had been in the habit of stealing. The children had agreed to say nothing about it, only when he went to bed he found two blankets missing so that he shivered all night. In the morning—he was a very clean boy—he found his toothbrush gone and this sort of thing went on happening. The things always returned the next day, but the effect of his stealing on others was thus clearly brought home to him and finally he gave it up.

Apart from this undoubted gain in independence the children from this, as indeed from all the camps in which I have worked, developed quite remarkably in their power of self-expression. Their school essays were incomparably better. The only objection found to the children was that they no longer fitted into the old-fashioned type of school. I think

that one of the most important factors in the achieving of this was that boys and girls were together; it is an undoubted fact that co-educationally brought up children express themselves far more freely than those educated separately. Also there was no doubt but that the children were happy. The scenes on leaving the camp, distressing as they were, gave sufficient proof of this. There is one point I should like here to stress, namely, the development of an absolutely mixed and entirely dissociated mass of children, coming from all classes, asocial, difficult children, a wild herd of individuals, to a social working body, acting, planning, useful, showing the influence of the group on the single member, the strong bond of comradeship and friendship between all.

It seems to me that it would be possible to reverse the order of what happened to our camp in Czechoslovakia at the present time and in this country. If camps for the evacuated children here were erected and run on the lines indicated above it would not only mean a great economy in money and time and adult 'man-power'—an important consideration in war time—for the actual running cost of such a camp, once the initial expenditure is done with, is so low as to make the outlay very much worth while) it would also be of great value to the children of this country both now and after the war.

The Care of Belgium's Children

Lucy Stubbe

Avocat à la Cour d'Appel, Brussels

BELGIUM is at the moment seriously threatened with war and its consequences. The Government considers that the present situation is likely to affect the child population in particular and that the protective measures applying to children in normal times will be found to be insufficient in an emergency, and has therefore taken the following steps.

The Minister of Health has instituted a Commission to protect child and youth welfare organizations which have to submit a plan for carrying out the necessary measures for safe-

guarding children and young people. However, since the difficult times in which we are now living render it impossible to leave it to private organizations to adapt themselves to the new conditions, it is feared that much effort will be wasted and the maximum result will not be obtained unless these enterprises are co-ordinated.

Already during the war of 1914-1918 it was found necessary to form a central organization for the care of children throughout the country and to co-ordinate the work of the various existing welfare centres and facilitate their

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Particulars of aims and activities from THE N.E.F., 29 TAVISTOCK SQUARE, LONDON, W.C.1.

task. In February 1915, a branch for the 'Help and Protection of Child Welfare Organizations' was formed within the National Help and Nutrition Committee.

It was designed to assist public authorities and institutions which give help to children who are destitute, orphaned, problem cases, ill or backward, in short to all children who are in material or mental need. From August 1915 onwards the branch was authorized to institute clinics for infants and nursing mothers all over the country ; later, canteens for under-nourished children and mothers, and finally, school canteens and homes for delicate children. The branch for the 'Help and Protection of Child Welfare Organizations' of the National Help and Nutrition Committee, in order to make sure of the efficient working of local organizations, applied to the Associated Provincial Help and Nutrition Committees, and a branch for child welfare was formed amongst these. These provincial committees did not confine themselves to forming and organizing centres where they were needed ; they also assured the supply of food to these centres through their close association with the Nutrition branch of the National Committee. They formed a connecting link between the National Committee and the local welfare centres. Being nearer to these they knew better both their needs and the difficulties that they had to overcome.

Moreover the National Committee exercised direct control over all local centres. It insisted on the production of reports and accounts and deputed inspectors to visit centres all over the country. Finally, an inspection of all the various provincial organizations assured its complete supervision and control.

After the war, by the law of the 5th September, 1919, the 'National Association for Child Welfare' was founded, an organization which inherited some of the duties of the branch for

the Help and Protection of Child Welfare Organizations of the National Help and Nutrition Committee.

For this law, while determining the organizations with which the National Association is to concern itself, gives it a very wide mission in article 2.

'The purpose of the National Association is to encourage and develop schemes for the protection of children and in particular to encourage the diffusion and application of the rules and scientific methods of hygiene for children, in families, in public and private educational and welfare establishments ; to encourage and to support, through subsidies or otherwise, organizations pertaining to children's hygiene ; to exercise an administrative and medical control over the organizations under its care'.

We have, therefore, at the present moment an impressive number of organizations under the patronage of the National Association : 244 prenatal clinics ; 1,265 recognized infant welfare clinics ; 144 centres for home visiting which are active in 713 parishes ; 2,995 children under obligatory supervision ; 8 homes ; 63 homes for infants ; 7 homes run by the National Association ; 4 homes recognized by the National Association ; 31 organizations subsidized by the National Association (these organizations include 62 homes for delicate children) ; 2 medically-supervised schools.

In addition to these organizations others which owe their existence to private enterprise are concerned with the protection of children and take in sick, delicate, or abandoned children or assume the task of improving their condition.

Up to the present the results obtained through the co-operation of the various organizations have proved excellent.

The present troubled period will force us to face new difficulties. The economic crisis has

affected all classes of society. In the working and middle classes incomes have been considerably reduced. Everyone is obliged to economise. Experience shows that these economies are generally made in the family's expenditure on food. Malnutrition will have the effect of lessening the people's resistance to infectious diseases. It is therefore necessary to combat this danger and to ensure that the civil population receives adequate rational food.

A scheme is being considered by the Ministry of Supplies for the distribution of foodstuffs to young children, nursing mothers and expectant mothers through the agency of the prenatal and infant clinics which exist throughout the country. The distribution of foodstuffs by the organizations presents a considerable advantage as the quantity and nature of these will be determined by the doctor who examines the panel patients who come to the clinics, and by the visiting nurse who sees the patients in their homes and enquires into their material circumstances. The scheme is based on the assumption that children of school age will receive distributions of food under the supervision of the school doctor and of the visiting nurse.

Numerous private enterprises whose efforts will be as far as possible co-ordinated by the committee for the 'Help and Protection of the Child Welfare Organizations' will relieve such poverty as might otherwise be the lot of the child population by a further distribution of food and clothing. These enterprises are, moreover, willing to contribute to a large extent to the evacuation of the children who live near the frontier. It is impossible in a small country like Belgium to arrange for the evacuation of all the children from large towns to the country. One also has to consider the fact that owing to the mentality of the Belgian people there is no question of evacuating children without their parents. Mothers would never agree to being separated from their children. In this connection it is characteristic to note that since the declaration of war all the homes for delicate children are, so to speak, depopulated; parents having immediately removed their children on the danger of war becoming imminent.

The economic consequences of mobilization have deprived many families of the income earned by the father. In spite of considerable

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efforts on the part of the Government to help them by paying allowances to the wife and children of mobilized men, many households are in great need, but the mothers nevertheless refuse to hand their children over to organizations which could assure them the comforts and the care which they cannot get at home.

This being so, the idea of taking children away from large towns and evacuating them to the country has had to be abandoned. Only the population of the frontier regions will be evacuated—in families—to more remote villages in the proportion of one evacuee per every three inhabitants in normal times.

The evacuation of the frontier regions will be effected by the Ministry of National Defence,

that is to say by the military authorities, who will be responsible for transporting the evacuees to more peaceful localities.

In the rest of the country the Ministry of National Defence has deputed its power to the parish authorities, who must take all the necessary measures for the passive defence of the population.

It is intended to evacuate those institutions for children which are situated in danger zones (*e.g.* near stations, barracks, aerodromes, etc.), leaving it to the civil population to take their own precautions according to the instructions issued.

Such are the preliminary precautions which have been planned.

Backward Readers

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LAST week while searching for suitable schools in which training college students might teach, I found a small hall containing 27 children in charge of three teachers. These pupils represented part of an overflow from a large junior school already overcrowded before it had received a full complement of evacuees. The school was working on the half-day shift system with a fairly high proportion of absentees amongst the 'locals'. In course of conversation, the headmaster remarked upon the progress made by some backward pupils in reading, through the extra help available and of the teachers' need for practical help with really difficult cases of backward readers.

Here then is a golden opportunity to help children in the most important activity of school life—reading, an opportunity to try out and acquire sound psychological methods of remedying reading difficulties and of developing useful silent reading habits.

Psychology of the Reading Process

Sound diagnostic and remedial methods are based on an appreciation of the mental factors involved in a process. In reading, the eye moves along the lines by successive quick movements, each accompanied by a pause. Nothing is recognized while the eye is in

motion, but only during the pause, in which the amount recognized varies from part of a word to as many as four words—and all this in a fraction of a second. In addition to the amount actually recognized, the span of recognition as it is called, there is partial recognition of the words on either side of the central part; this facilitates actual recognition when the eye moves ahead and aids understanding of what is read. Now the formation of the recognition span is dependent upon early reading habits. A short span means slow reading and slower understanding. Some children form a short span because of a too early introduction to difficult material. *For young children and backward readers the selection of material is of paramount importance*, the careful grading and repetition of word difficulties being an essential. Sometimes over-emphasis on phonic word drills and insufficient phrase or sentence reading of a sensible kind will cause word reading, *i.e.* a short span.

Now, in addition to movements of the eyes, most young pupils and many backward readers half say the material; this helps them to recognize the words and, what is more, to understand what they read. (Note that adults do the same in reading what is for them new material, as an involved legal document or a

foreign language.) Teachers who require such children to keep their lips closed during reading practice are interfering with the pupil's recognition and comprehension of the material.

All teachers should know what word recognition implies. Pupils learn words by five different means :

- (a) By their visual pattern or configuration, *e.g.* 'all', 'one', 'ate', 'eye', 'box' all differ in pattern though of similar length, while these words are quite dissimilar from 'only', 'church', 'monkeys', 'sixpence', 'aeroplane' which increase in length.

Teachers will readily appreciate the importance of not having too many words like 'on', 'an', 'in', 'is', 'it', 'at' ; 'was', 'saw' ; 'big', 'pig' ; 'bad', 'dad' in early reading material. Older backward readers will often progress with specially selected material containing great dissimilarities of word pattern—they will read 'aeroplane', 'engine', 'pilot' when they fail to differentiate 'bad', 'dad' ; 'was', 'saw' ; 'on', 'no', or make little progress with the similarly patterned material of a thorough-going phonic reader.

- (b) By the auditory elements of the words.

- (c) By the articulatory (or saying) elements.

(b)-(c) form a unit which some children find difficult to master. No child learns to read without some assistance from the auditory-articulatory elements of words.

- (d) By the kinæsthetic (or movement) impression of words.

This aid in learning to read is somewhat neglected. Saying and seeing words should be intimately connected with writing or tracing them, particularly for backward pupils who are weak in visual recall or auditory-articulatory analysis and synthesis.

- (e) By the meaning of words.

All children learn to read more quickly and effectively if the words have a full background of meaning for them. Young children will try to read about animals, everyday activities, or visits to the zoo, circus, seaside, etc., when they may remain apathetic with the traditional 'the red hen is in a fix in the pen' approach.

Noticeable, too, with backward seniors of 11 or 12 years is the awakened enthusiasm when the material is based on their interests.

Although sentences such as 'Rover ran after the ball with Kitty' may suit their reading vocabulary level they do not fit in with what really interests them, and, as reading failures are conditioned by emotional as much as by intellectual attitudes, these older pupils will not apply themselves unless the material is suitable to their years.¹

Causes of Backwardness in Reading

My own research tends to show that, apart from a certain number of low-grade defectives, there is not more than one pupil in 20,000 who cannot be taught to read. The supposed cases of 'word blindness' and 'word deafness'—terms to cloak ignorance of real causes—are few and far between. True, there are children whose deficiencies in specific mental fields make it difficult for them to learn to read at the same time and with the same efficiency as most pupils, but all such deficiencies can be overcome. There are three main causes of reading disabilities, partly inborn, partly acquired.

- A. *A Weakness in the visual discrimination of word patterns*, shown in an inability to remember words of similar shape, hence the confusion of 'on', 'no' ; 'of', 'for' ; 'was', 'saw', and a slowness in differentiating 'b', 'd' ; 'p', 'q'.

Children with this weakness are prone to reversals, part reversals, and confusion of words of somewhat similar structure. They tend to react to a part of a word ; thus they will read 'for' as 'from' or 'of' ; 'farm' as 'from' or 'form' ; 'dad' as 'bad' ; 'catches' as 'churches'. This weakness may be related to some actual visual weakness, but more often the eyesight is quite normal and the weakness simply represents a slowness of maturation in this particular function.

Here is an example of this type of backward reader :

Robert C. Age 8 years. Reading age 6.

Intelligence Quotient 118.

(bay) (bog) (left)

One day my dog cut his leg on an open tin, so I

¹ For a series of readers which combines everyday activities with story elements and have a careful grading of vocabulary difficulties, see 'The Happy Venture Readers', Introductory Book and Books I, II, III, IV, with preparatory cards. F. J. Schonell and F. I. Serjeant. (Oliver & Boyd Ltd., 1939.)

(up) (ubber) (upper)
 put him under my arm and ran to a shop. Here a
 (wonder)
 man wound some rag round the cut . . .¹

The difficulties of visual discrimination are apparent in these errors.

B. *Weakness in analysis and synthesis of auditory patterns of words.*

This is shown by a confusion of letters of similar sound, e.g. 'd', 't'; 'b', 'p'; 'm', 'n', and a substitution of vowels. Thus 'sad' is read as 'sat', 'put' as 'pat'.

These pupils have difficulty in remembering what sound the common diagraphs—'ow', 'th', 'ch', 'ea', 'ee'—stand for. Their spelling is usually very weak.

Here again, although their weakness may be due to some subnormality in auditory acuity or to an organic defect (having an auditory basis), their phonic weakness does not often have an organic basis. The pupils can hear well and show powers of discrimination except when it comes to linking spoken sounds with particular groups of letters.

Interesting evidence of this type comes from three children of the same family—Albert B., age $8\frac{2}{12}$; Sidney B., aged $9\frac{5}{12}$; Hilda B., age $11\frac{3}{12}$; who were all very backward in reading and spelling, but not unintelligent.

Thus Sidney B., age $9\frac{5}{12}$.

Reading age $6\frac{5}{12}$. Spelling age $6\frac{2}{12}$. I.Q. 90.

(set) (woon) (love) (bad)

'He said he would not get a loaf of bread for his
 (moyer)
 master'.

He writes :

A juntn man bon a bine toiyoun and he hat a
 toiy lithe and . . .

A young man built a beautiful statue and he had
 a beautiful wife and . . .

That he has little idea of the sound components of words is easily seen from his reading and writing errors.

C. *An Incorrectly Developed Directional Attack on Words.*

Pupils with this weakness do not perceive words in a systematic way from left to right. This is shown in a tendency to reverse short words, to transpose letters (gril—girl) and to start recognition of words from the middle to the left or from the right to the left.

This may be due to slovenly habits set up through visual difficulties, but recent research shows that it is connected with eyedness and handedness problems. Some left-handed backward readers show the difficulty in a pronounced form.

Thus Leslie E., a left hander.

Age $12\frac{3}{12}$. Reading age $5\frac{10}{12}$. Reads :

(god) (pen)

'One day my dog cut his leg on an open tin, so I

(duner) (top)

put him under my arm and ran to a shop.

(Her) (wode) (gar)

Here a man wound some rag . . .'

His written work showed the same tendency. He writes :

'Wowe ti nairs I bo not go mole to bina' . . .

For 'When it rains I do not go home to dinner'.

That a boy of 12, I.Q. 90, should not have got beyond the reading level of a 6-year old hardly seems credible. On examining Leslie I found that he was labouring under a fairly intense specific defect. He was a 'left' in every sense of the word—he wrote left hand, kicked left foot, cut, threw, wound, etc., left hand, and sighted with the opposite eye. In writing, he made many of his letters from right to left (o, a, g, h, d, etc.), and there was ample evidence of this right-left tendency in his reading and spelling errors. What the boy required was plenty of sounding-tracing cues with later consolidation of writing to set up a correct left-right habit of looking at and writing words. Graded work of this kind and a dispersal of the emotional effects of failure through early success produced 18 months' progress in four months' remedial teaching.

Although stress has been laid on the intellectual causes of backwardness in reading, it is not assumed that the emotional factors are any less important. In many cases they are more important in reading progress—to this the last section of the article is devoted—but teachers require, in addition, some technique of tackling reading problems. 'How can we teach these children to read?' 'How can we dispel the effects of this failure of which we are only too conscious?' they ask.

It is my experience that it is only through a carefully planned attack on both intellectual and emotional factors in reading disability that success arises. It is not sufficient simply to say, 'These pupils want a fresh start. Give them success and dispel the effects of their failure'. Too often such statements are bandied about without offering any real help to the teacher.

¹ Taken from a case study of a backward reader using a simple diagnostic prose test. Test materials, case studies and remedial methods to be published shortly in *Backwardness in the Basic Subjects*. Fred J. Schonell. (Oliver & Boyd Ltd.)

Reading Tests

It is useful from the outset for teachers to apply a few easy reading tests to gain an idea of the nature of the reading disability. The first and most useful of these are :

(a) Burt's Graded Reading Vocabulary Test.¹

or (b) Vernon's Graded Word Reading Test.²

From these an accurate reading age can be derived from the calculation :

$$\text{Reading age} = \frac{\text{Number of words correct}}{10} + 4 \text{ years (Burt)} \\ \text{or } 5 \text{ years (Vernon)}$$

This measure is a useful indication of the level of material most suited to the child³ ; it is useful for grouping pupils in reading sections, while the tests can be used for checking progress at three-monthly periods.

Supplementary to these tests is a simple prose test, 'My Dog',⁴ which gives a measure of the pupil's ability of reading continuous material.

In addition, teachers should obtain an idea of how far pupils are conversant with common phonic units. Thus a simple graded test of this kind⁴ is useful for diagnostic purposes :

win	had	boy	will	from
mud	sing	keep	get	rod
dug	yes	fish	nip	gum
mop	her	sold	let	say
clock	van	train	dress	stick

The test includes all common vowel and consonant digraphs such as : ai, oo, ie, ea, ck, st, sp, th, gr.

Finally a test of reversals and part reversals of words⁴ completes this classroom battery of practical diagnostic reading tests.

From these three or four tests the teacher is able to find out each pupil's exact reading level, the extent of his weakness, from both a visual and an auditory standpoint of recognizing words, and the exact nature of his perceptual attack on words—its persistency

¹ *A Handbook of Tests*, Ps. 2-3. C. Burt. (P. S. King & Son. Price 3/6.)

² *The Standardisation of a Graded Word Reading Test*. P. E. Vernon. (University of London Press. Price 1/-.)

³ For help in this direction see *The Education of Backward Children*. M. E. Hill. (Harrap & Co. 5/-.)

⁴ *Backwardness in the Basic Subjects*. Fred J. Schonell. (Oliver & Boyd Ltd.) Ready in the early spring.

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and constancy with regard to left-right perception.

Remedial Methods

Remedial methods for backward readers depend upon the age of the pupil, his degree of disability, the level of his intelligence, and should always take into account the pupil's everyday interests. Although there is no particular method most suited to backward readers it is important that the remedial reading should provide immediate success and that, as teaching proceeds, supplementary devices should be introduced to remedy any one or more of the three deficiencies detailed above, *i.e.* weak visual discrimination, or weak phonic analysis and synthesis, or irregular perceptual attack on words. Successful remedial teaching combines all common methods of teaching reading—phonic, 'look and say' or 'word whole', and sentence methods. I find that a thorough going sentence method often fails hopelessly with backward readers of an innately dull kind ; the units are too long and confusing for them, and secondly there are

some older pupils with whom a wholehearted phonic approach fails to produce progress and at the same time increases their distaste of the subject.

The best approach with a group of very backward readers is to build up their own reading books based on their interests. Sometimes before starting on this it serves a useful therapeutic purpose, with pupils of 9 or 10 years of age who have a very low reading age (5-6), to print a very simple poem containing repeated lines, and allow the pupils to learn the poem by heart. They 'read' the poem from their book—in reality they say it from memory, looking at the words—but it has the effect of rekindling confidence in their own powers.

Ask the pupils what they would like to read about and encourage them to suggest key words.

For example, one boy wanted to read about Indians, so the keywords selected from his suggestions were, 'Red Indians', 'wigwam', 'brave', 'squaw'. Then from the collection of books, papers, catalogues, magazines, and cigarette cards (so necessary if the activity method of teaching backward readers is to be used), stored in the cupboard, we cut out pictures of a Red Indian woman and a wigwam. Two sets of cards were prepared, one bearing the name and the picture (Card A) and the other bearing only the name (Card B). Pupils then learnt the word through association with the picture and through matching exercises :

- (a) Pupils look at pictures and words.
- (b) B cards are then mixed up and pupils put them on top of words on the A cards.
- (c) The words are then cut off A cards and mixed up, and pupils have to put correct words to pictures.
- (d) Pictures are taken away and pupils match pairs of words.
- (e) Pupils are asked to read each word.

In addition, pupils said (or sounded) the word and at the same time traced it with the fingers of their writing hand. Then they tried to write the word from memory—if they failed they said the word again and traced it and then rewrote it. They were not allowed to copy the word in writing it, but always had to write it from the combined visual, auditory and kinæsthetic impressions. Next day the words were revised and another three or four new words were similarly learnt. After 20 words were so learnt, sentences were compiled in the reading book—three or four per day.

Page 1. This is a wigwam.
This is a Red Indian wigwam.
Red Indians live in a wigwam.
Red Indians sleep in a wigwam.

The new words 'sleep', 'live' and 'this' were learnt by a saying or sounding-tracing-writing method supplemented by cards with pictures. Where words lent themselves to illustrations, the pupils sometimes drew the illustrations for the card ; thus sleep was illustrated on the card by a child in bed.

Further development of this particular interest was :

Page 2. This is a Red Indian.
He is a Red Indian man.
He is called a brave.

Page 3. This is a Red Indian.
She is a Red Indian woman.
She is called a squaw.

Page 4. The squaw lives in a wigwam.
She sleeps in a wigwam.
The brave lives in a wigwam.
He sleeps in a wigwam.

The words are large and well spaced and the pages are illustrated. Care is taken each day to revise previous words and not to compile more than three or four sentences each lesson. There is ample repetition each time of words both old and new. Revision is taken by printing sentences from the reading book on cards, and giving pupils flash card work, and by cutting up sentences and letting pupils combine words to make sentences.

Subsequent pages in the Red Indian book dealt with Red Indian dress, where Red Indians live, canoes, animals, hunting, trapping, fishing, making pots, making wigwams, selling furs. After this the pupils had sufficient vocabulary to try a short story about Indians. The whole story was read through several times with the group and then new words were learnt by the saying-tracing-writing method. Short question cards were prepared on the story and pupils answered the questions in the words of the story. Stories for this stage must be short and simple. If there are nine or ten backward readers, they can be arranged in two or three groups each carrying on a different reading activity. Books so made can be exchanged.

The final step is to simple stories with a graded vocabulary¹ and graded puzzles, *e.g.* :

I grow on a tree.
I grow in hot lands.
I have milk inside me.
I am white inside.
I am hairy outside.
What am I ?²

¹ See 'Happy Venture Readers', Books II, III, IV. (Oliver & Boyd Ltd.) The graded vocabulary of these books, which allows for preliminary study of new words, makes them suitable material for backward juniors.

² 'Happy Venture Reader' III, p. 88.

Very Backward Seniors

Many senior schools have a proportion of very backward readers and it is imperative that they should learn to read. A programme similar to that just outlined can be used except that each boy selects his own topic—aeroplanes, motor cars, ships, cycles, steam engines, keeping pigeons and rabbits—were amongst the topics selected by one 'C' group. The procedure is the same: build up a basic vocabulary through pictures and diagrams, *e.g.* aeroplane (propeller, pilot, wings, tail, etc.) and then proceed to sentences. A useful device for these older backward boys is to allow them to dictate their own sentences that are to be formed from the keywords. The teacher prints the sentence for the pupil, making slight changes if the grammar or vocabulary so demand, but keeping as close to the original as possible so that the meaning background will have maximum value when the boys read their own material. It is useful, after a period of building topic books, to allow boys to teach each other from their own books.

Specific Devices

For those weak in a knowledge of common phonic combinations it is advisable to supplement the above general remedial teaching with a small amount of easy phonic study. A few words each day from a list of common phonic combinations¹ will help greatly, while learning to spell common words grouped according to structure² will also eliminate this weakness. Occasionally it is necessary to supplement the reading with actual phonic matter.³

For backward readers weak in visual discrimination of words, we find that matching devices produce improvement. Material such as cards with words or phrases printed on them and appropriate pictures are used to enable pupils to master subtle differences between words of somewhat similar structure.⁴

¹ For such lists see pages 35-40 and 53-60, Books I and II of the 'Happy Venture Readers'. (Oliver & Boyd Ltd.)

² *The Essential Spelling List* (seventh impression). Fred J. Schonell. (Macmillan.) 3,200 everyday words graded, classified and grouped according to structure for ages 7-12.

³ 'Chelsea Reading Scheme' material. (Phillip & Tacey.)

⁴ Suggestions for these can be obtained from:

(i) Chapter VI, *Improvement of Reading*. Gates. (Macmillan & Co.)

(ii) The preparatory work books for 'The Playwork Readers'. Gates and Huber. (Macmillan & Co.)

(iii) *Improvement of Reading through Remedial Instruction*. Archer and Bieri. (Edwards Bros., Michigan.)

For those pupils who have developed unsystematic habits of left-right perception, the introduction to cursive writing together with the saying (or sounding) tracing-writing method of learning new words will greatly reduce this tendency. They regularize their looking at words through the movement impressions.

Appropriate Materials

Almost as important as methods are materials. Recently I tested a class (ages 7-8+) in a junior school and, although there was a range of reading ages from 5.0 to 11.1, all pupils were using the same class reader. The material was obviously too difficult for those at the lower end of the range, while pupils with reading ages of 9.5 and over should have been doing silent reading of supplementary material. Group and individual methods are essential if we are to do justice to all pupils in reading lessons. Of the four or five reading lessons per week allotted to junior classes not more than one should be taken as a class lesson, the other lessons should be taken in sections (oral and silent reading sections) or in oral reading groups (with group leaders). Materials should be suited to the levels and interests of the sections or groups. Backward juniors should have such material as 'The Children's Hour Readers', Grades III and IV (Short graded stories—Oliver & Boyd); 'How and Why' Junior Book I (Wheaton); Beacon, II and III (Ginn); 'Happy Venture Readers', III and IV (Oliver & Boyd); 'Joy Books' (Blackie).

Backward seniors are best suited with such texts as 'Read, Laugh and Learn' Books I and II (Grant Educational Co.); 'New Foundation Readers', Books I and II (University of London Press); 'Pleasure Readers' (*Malachi's Cove, The Adventures of Malcolm and Margaret, Zoo Tales*, I and II, *Just Why Stories*) (Oliver & Boyd); 'Speedwell Book' (Cassell).

Emotional Factors in Reading Disability

Backwardness in reading is closely related to adverse emotional factors of different kinds. These may arise in the first year of school life through children starting formal reading methods before they are ready for them

(American psychologists believe a mental age of 6 years to be the right starting point). The accumulated effects of continued failure weigh very heavily on some pupils and it is very difficult to get backward readers of 11+ onwards to apply themselves to remedial work, *i.e.* unless something in the nature of a reading project as indicated above is taken. It is significant that 50 per cent. of delinquents examined at Child Guidance Clinics are backward in reading. It is certain that a proportion of them would never have become delinquent if they had been taught to read. Reading is for all children an important means of self-expression, both individual and social, and if this avenue of psychic satisfaction is not only closed to them, but the reason for its closure is broadcast to companions and superiors, then their feelings of insufficiency are made doubly great. Backwardness in reading exerts its sinister influence on levels in spelling, English, acquisition of new ideas and even in the reading of sums in arithmetic—it is little wonder that pupils backward in reading seek other avenues for self-expression.

No other instruction that the school gives functions so much in after-life as reading. What does it avail a child if he can multiply

£97 18s. 9½d. by 98, or if he knows about the coalfields of England or the battles in the Civil War, if he cannot read? His attainments in multiplication or his geographical and historical knowledge are of comparatively little use compared with reading, which is the very cornerstone of his existence, occupational and leisured.

Naturally, the means and methods advocated in this article require thought, initiative, and time on the part of the teacher. There must be frequent lessons, morning and afternoon, a sound sympathetic approach, no punishment, suitable material, and complete flexibility of time-table. But everything is worth it if we teach all our pupils to read—we not only open to them progress in other educational fields, but, what is more, we produce personality readjustment shown in their restored confidence, security, and happiness.

It is the duty of every school, junior and senior, council or private, to teach every child to read, no matter what else it does. Apart from the very few low-grade defectives and pupils with specific disabilities, backward readers of 11+ and over represent a striking indictment of the school or schools in which they have been taught.

Book Reviews

A. L. Junior Music Reader. By Charles Hooper, B.Mus., L.R.A.M. (Books I, II, 8d., III, IV, 9d., E. J. Arnold, 10d.)

The School Recorder Book. By Edmund Priestley, B.Sc., L.R.A.M., and Fred Fowler. (E. J. Arnold.)

The Junior Music Reader is a nicely thought-out plan for general musicianship especially helpful to school teachers who are taking several subjects besides music. It is a splendid introduction of music to the young enthusiast giving ample suggestion and scope for allowing the young pupil to develop his own creative powers both by suggestions from the stories and the theoretical and practical knowledge to be gained by the studies.

The School Recorder Book gives to the beginner a most clear and concise account of how to play the Descant Recorder. It leads from an introduction dealing with Recorder playing in Henry VIII's reign to the possibilities of Recorder playing, now revived in English schools, to-day. It shows

the excellent opportunities afforded by Recorder quartettes.

This charming and inexpensive way of producing music will be greatly forwarded by the book with its good illustrations and the attractive selection of tunes in Part I, and will be found to be full of encouragement, inspiration and historical interest by those who purchase it.

D. M. Dalrymple, A.R.C.M.,
Director of Wilts. Rural Music School

The Happy Venture Readers. By Fred J. Schonell, Ph.D., and Irene Serjeant, H.F.C. (Introductory Book, 9d., Book I, 11d., Book II, 1/3, Book III, 1/6, Oliver & Boyd.)

Anyone who has struggled to lighten the despair of an intelligent foreigner over the wildly non-phonetic elements in written English is forced to realize what a strange and difficult task faces our six-year olds when they first set out to learn to read. Dr. Schonell and Irene Serjeant have analysed the

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basic difficulties of learning to read. These lie both in the immaturity of the learner and in the illogicality of much of the matter to be learnt. To ask a six-year old who still has to think which is his right hand and which his left to distinguish between such words as 'bib' and 'did', 'bog' and 'dog' in close juxtaposition is to put an unfair strain on his powers of attention. When such traps lie in two neighbouring words, the child cannot afford to look at the sentence as a whole. His eye-span is narrowed to the anxious contemplation of a single word—and he is forced away from fluency at the outset, in the interests of accuracy. The same holds good of whole sentences built up of words of identical length. It is easier—as well as more interesting—to distinguish between 'chocolate' and 'ink' than between 'bad' and 'had'—a fact that has been taken into very skilful account by the authors of these readers.

They are planned to give a maximum of revision with a minimum of boredom, and a maximum of new material with a minimum of strain. Throughout the series, an average of two new words appears on each page, but the old words are juggled with so ingeniously that there is no monotony.

When I first heard of the projected series I expected something very sound, scientific—something a teacher could rely on. But I was, I'm ashamed to say, astonished to find something gay and charming which would delight any child. This is partly due to C. J. McCall's coloured illustrations, partly to the fact that 'the vital aim of the series is to ensure

success—the most important factor in school progress'. And the authors, being good psychologists, realize that success is the effect, as well as the cause, of pleasure.

The Youngest Camel. By Kaye Boyle.
(Faber & Faber, 3/6.)

If one regards *The Youngest Camel* as an allegory (which it at first sight appears to be) one becomes hopelessly confused. It would seem that following the path of virtue consists in giving up everything that is pleasant, even such things as gifts to your mother or playing with other little camels. However, the ending convinces one (to one's immense relief) that such was not the author's intention. It is, as the publisher's 'blurb' says, a 'fairy' story, and the trials the unfortunate camel has to undergo are like the labours of Hercules. They have no moral, but merely narrative value. Once clear on this point one can enjoy the story, which is one to grip the imagination of any child. For it is not only a very moving tale, it has a strange poetic quality which makes it linger in the mind. I can imagine children of from 6-10 reading it, or asking to have it read to them, over and over again.

E. Shanks

The Underwater Zoo. By Theodore McClintock. (Routledge, 5/-.)

This is a lovely book—an April to September pond-hunter's diary—which will prove equally enjoyable for child or grown-up.

The author was presented with a caddis-fly grub in a jam jar and from this he builds up an aquarium stocked chiefly at first from little creatures scooped up with a kitchen strainer from the mud of a near-by stream, though later he goes out into the country to make other and more interesting captures. His creatures, none of which are more than two inches long, have adventures and struggles as palpitating as any drama. Most fascinating of all are the dragon-fly nymphs in their transformations, and there are clear and careful illustrations drawn by the author.

The book has an excellent bibliography which should help those who wish to name and classify and read up about their creatures, but it is itself burdened with no scientific and few ordinary names, and it gives one an idea of the interest and pleasure and even of the value to science that may be derived from intent and patient observation.

J. Webb

Tales of the Four Pigs and Brock the Badger. By Allison Uttley. (Faber & Faber, 5/-.)

This seems to me the quite perfect book for the 5-8 year old. It starts off very quietly with the

well-known wolf story, and the pigs' adventures grow more real and yet more unexpected from chapter to chapter. Their problems are real problems, only solvable by character and commonsense. And the Badger is the perfect adult—always at hand when things become too difficult and occasionally ready for a more ambitious adventure than the pigs could manage on their own; but otherwise much too busy with his own life to over-organize theirs. The book is funny and exciting and shot through with beauty. Mrs. Uttley knows how to impart her joy in the countryside and also the grosser joys of gardening and eating.

Patrick. By *Diana Buttenshaw.* (Macmillan, 6/-.) Illustrations by *Raymond Sheppard.*

Patrick was a sort of Irish Mowgli, shipwrecked on the shores of an island between Scotland and Ireland with his father's St. Bernard, and brought up by the animals that were the island's sole inhabitants. The book owes a good deal to its famous predecessor: none the less for that it is a most individual story. For a second shipwreck brings men to the island; when they are rescued they take Patrick with them to England and his attempts to adjust himself to 'civilized' life—he is taken in by a not-very-understanding aunt and uncle, who send him to a boys' school where he makes friends and distinguishes himself at games—form the principal theme of what is an entrancing and fast-moving story. This does not mean that the book is a restless succession of adventures: indeed one of its best points is its unity; it depicts the struggle and ultimate failure of a wild creature to adapt itself to modern life. That this failure was due to a breakdown in health is characteristic of all the stories one hears of such changelings. It is in a sense a pathetic story but it has real artistic merits and that is more than one can say about the majority of stories for children. Raymond Sheppard's illustrations are enchanting, particularly when he portrays animals. It is probably most suitable for children from 8-11 years (but the reviewer, aged 31, could not put it down).

Round the Year Stories (*The Winter Book*).

By *Maribel Edwin.* (Nelson, 2/6.)

I do not know the other books in this series—the Spring, Summer, and Autumn books—but if they are as good as this they must be very good. This volume consists of a series of stories about eels, a fallow-deer, mistle-thrush, robin, red squirrel, great tit, fox, hedge-sparrow, salmon, badger, rabbit, and house-mouse. The needs and dangers of each creature are shown in an unforced and vivid way. Most of the facts are simple enough to be verified by any observant country child, so whetting his curiosity and leading him to make further observations for himself. Human beings come into most

of the stories, but without that jarring note of sentimentality which often mars their entrance. Suitable as a bedtime story-book and class reader for the 7-9 year old. Many of Mr. Raymond Sheppard's illustrations are beautiful.

Paddle your own Canoe. By *Lord Baden-Powell.* (Macmillan, 2/6.)

Baden-Powell's interesting and amusing stories are mostly taken from wild animal life and from people of the jungle. You have stories of animals illustrating virtues, much needed in these days of 'nerves', common sense, resourcefulness, endurance, patience, gratitude, and courtesy, told in the characteristic way of the Chief Scout, which makes him so popular with the Boy Scouts and, in fact, with every boy he meets. The book is full of advice to all those who, like the Boy Scouts, want to learn to do things for themselves. It is illustrated by many fine black-and-white sketches from the Chief Scout's own pen. Although this is termed a boy's book it can be read by boys and girls alike. His last story is one which every scout knows—the story of the death of Captain Oates—and it ends with Captain Scott's last letter:

'We are weak. Writing is difficult. For my own sake I do not regret this journey which has shown that Englishmen can endure hardships, help one another, and meet death with as great fortitude as ever in the past'.

Rex Regis

Nobody's Boy, Nobody's Girl. By *Hector Malot.* Translated by *Florence Crewe-Jones.* (Rich & Cowan, 6/- each.)

These were the first, perhaps the only, *story* books that I ever enjoyed reading in French lessons at school (*En Famille* and *Sans Famille*). This is probably irrelevant as a reason for or against their translation into English, but it makes them very difficult to review. Both stories are full of incident, including abrupt and cruel changes of fortune, and both end 'well.' Their background is a rather bygone France, both rural and industrial.

THE JANUARY ISSUE OF
THE NEW ERA

will be largely concerned with

PSYCHOLOGY

Designed to be of practical help to
the teacher.

The New Education and the Peace

Marthe Nemes

Founder of the N.E.F. in Hungary
Editor of *A Jövö Utjain*

THE New Education Fellowship was constituted with the aim of promoting the coming of a generation, healthy in body and mind and able to establish a better world than that for which our forefathers and ourselves were responsible.

We have faith in the higher values of European culture, in the principles of love and self-assumed duty. We have worked and are ready to work for the time to come, when spiritual forces, persuasion instead of brute force, shall reign over this much tormented world.

We are conscious of the fact that every new generation marks with its own stamp the period in which it unfolds and we feel the more responsible for the generation to come.

During the last decades we have gained a deeper knowledge of the child and his needs and we have, therefore, no right to await passively the sinister influences of the war and its consequences without trying to counter-balance them.

We cherished the not unreasonable hope that mankind would rise to a higher level. We were helped in our endeavour by scientists as well as by politicians, by artists and social workers, and by the many unnamed who have understood the new ways of education. We looked forward to the day when education would become a conscious force in the evolution of mankind.

But evil forces opposed the flourishing of our work. The last war and political trends forced us to withdraw from many of our most promising positions. And a second war threatens now to weaken what the first war was not able to destroy.

The effects of the last war on the children are still present with us. It was the war which was responsible for the bands of children, tramps begging and robbing on the boundless highways of Russia, and it was the war which

produced a German youth incapable of resisting when it should have fought for its liberty. Pedagogical, pathological and criminal surveys could tell a long tale about the issues of war's horrors. How will our children, already bearing the marks of the first blow, issue from the second? Much will depend upon the peace treaty. Shall we venture a first step in a new period, rich in human values and in which life is worth living?

But can we have confidence that such a peace will be made? Have we not heard equally promising words before the end of the last war?

New trends in history are hard to bring about, but can we not insist upon a peace not based upon retribution, provoking new miseries, hatred and resistance, and containing the seeds of new combats to come?

The greatest thinkers and the most human hearts, the greatest statesmen and the best organizers should unite their efforts to prepare a creative peace. A sound economic basis must be found and new international channels of collective life, helping and furthering every part of the civilized world.

The particular historical trend of every country has to be taken into account, every nation has the right to its individual strivings, for its self-formulated happiness. But how are these different organizations to be harmonized with the idea of internationalism?

And how will the new generation growing up in circumstances so adverse to its development, be protected and aided and helped to fullness of the individual, free life, which is its inherited right?

Many with terrified eyes seem to see the last struggles of a dying civilization in the days to come. But we think that the solution is still in our hands. It may be the last but it may be the first step; a new path never entered upon yet.

Points from Letters

(a) 'I have been trying for some time to write some kind of reply to the article in your last issue: "Evacuation, the Receiving End", but find that conditions do not give me a fair opportunity to give a fair reply. Also our own situation in Reading is such that I have not experienced personally most of the matters described by a worthy but somewhat biased commentator.

'He gives no reason in favour of absorption except the apparent necessity to fill all the desks in the school, a little point of organization about which I have been scrapping with the L.C.C. for years. He does not appear to have heard that before evacuation we all promised our parents that the children would be under our own personal authority—many would not have come without that promise. He seems to have in his neighbourhood a large number of half-empty schools. Surely if the village school is occupied by its own scholars there is little room for evacuees. In how many cases are the local schools so devoid of pupils that they can absorb an equal number of evacuees?

'However, personally I do not oppose absorption where necessary, but object to it as a scheme. In Reading, arrangements by the local authority have been sufficiently skilfully made to allow us all to keep our own identity (one exception in about 80 departments of schools)'. *L. K.*

(b) . . . "The word "club" is really unsuitable for our modest effort at Lancing, which simply consists of a hall, generously lent by the Lancing Boy Scouts, in which parents from London who are visiting their evacuated children on Sundays can sit and talk with them, eat their lunches, and obtain cups of tea. Our voluntary helpers are present to supervise and prepare the tea and also to chat with the parents, give information and advice on difficulties. Members of the teaching staff drop in at odd times during the day and their personal contact with the parents under these conditions has been most useful. In several cases of billeting and disciplinary difficulties, happy solutions have been found and misunderstandings cleared up.

'The use of the hall provides not only a shelter for the parents and children but some relief for the hosts in the billets. The number of visitors varies widely and is chiefly dependent on the weather—a wet Sunday increasing the attendance very much.

'The success of the scheme depends largely on its informality and the complete freedom allowed to parents and children—no attempt being made to "organize" their meetings. More than all its success depends on the wonderful and self-sacrificing work of the voluntary helpers, who came with us into the reception area and who besides this Sunday work spend a very full and hard week in all weathers acting as a "Care Committee", helping the children—and us—in innumerable ways. They settle billeting difficulties, take children to clinics and doctors for urgent treatments (only to-day a child swallowed

a button), make and repair clothing, the latter often almost a hopeless job, and help in many other ways to make the lot of our evacuees healthier and happier than it was in London'.

A London Headmaster

(c) 'There have been many and various reactions in this suburb to the problem of evacuated children. Some soap-shy parents are delighted to find their undisciplined offspring being taught table and general house manners, while being waited on hand and foot in some old English country house. These would willingly forget all responsibility for the duration and perhaps afterwards . . .

'Those whom I have met who are happiest about their children are the ones who have always taken an interest in their school work. One mother of three difficult children is willing to pay anything she possibly can scrape together to keep her children in the country. Her husband has been desperately ill and is still on a special diet. No matter, the parents would rather go short than have the children back. The boy has always been nervous, always disturbed at night. Now a fortnight often goes by without any upsets and he is putting on weight almost visibly. Joan is left-handed and in the huge class in her home-school could not have the attention she needed, as her whole approach to her school work was affected and she was getting left behind in class. Now, in these few weeks, in a small class of about 12, she has become quite normal and able to tackle her work with the others. Her twin sister has a paralyzed arm: this is having careful attention and her mother sees improvement every time she visits the children.

'Another mother of twins is equally happy and again sees the value of the children in small classes. One of her girls was very bright and though one in a class of between 30 and 40 was able to hold her own. Her twin sister was always bottom and becoming more and more disheartened and nervous. In the country with the same teacher but in a smaller class she has been second or third almost from the beginning and has gained 4½ pounds in a month, to say nothing of her gain in spirits and happy response to life. Her mother said she doubted if the child would have gained as much weight at home in a year, as she was always worrying and fretting about her school work.'

Two Lay Sisters

(d) 'In this area we have never had to accustom ourselves to child-deserted streets. True, some of the children were evacuated, but many have returned, and it is estimated that a large percentage of Bermondsey schoolchildren are still here and likely to remain. Perhaps father has been called up or is out of work, and mother goes out to work to keep the home going. Meanwhile, for John, Joan and little Bobby the street offers endless possibilities, most of them of dubious value.

'So we started several centres with small numbers, in Church Halls and crypts that are A.R.P. shelters already, or which have such shelters next door, and

therefore are at least as safe as the children's homes. We charge them 2d. per week for equipment, since we have no funds whatever, offer them two hours' occupation on three mornings per week, and they come gladly. They are probably getting bored with the streets by this time. We have a hard struggle to keep the numbers down to the maximum of 50 to each centre. They bring their twopences regularly, and there is always a newcomer hoping to be admitted. The two hours go incredibly fast. They ask to be given homework, and produce it with pride. Already four centres are meeting regularly, and others hope to be under way soon.

'But we are terribly short of teachers. We have no funds, so must rely entirely on voluntary help, and here in Bermondsey everybody is already doing something. Nevertheless, we have found some unexpected helpers. Our staff includes two Red Cross Nurses who "have a way" with the little ones; air-raid Wardens who were Army P.T. Instructors; an organist; ambulance drivers; a stretcher bearer who teaches English; an unemployed woman teacher of Recreative Physical Training; and the parish clergy, who take the responsibility for the two centres run in their Church Halls.

'These and others divide the work of the centres

between them as best they can, fitting in their own attendance between the changing shifts of their National Defence work. Very few can attend absolutely regularly, which conditions our syllabus very strongly.

'The most feasible plan seems to be to correlate the lessons with events of to-day. The question, "Why is petrol (butter, bacon) to be rationed?" leads on to a good deal of Geography; stories of History and modern inventions can be used as the basis of a composition lesson, and our arithmetic is largely based on "shopping" and "change". Hand-work is difficult, largely for want of equipment, but the children bring their own knitting, and some of the better-off schools in other places have sent crayons, paint boxes, and other spare equipment, for which we are very grateful.

'Six hours in a week is very little to give to our children's training; but the keenness they show may make up, in some measure, for their restricted hours. Meanwhile, mothers come every day to ask if we can take Johnny, aged 7, and it is sad to have to refuse. Perhaps later on, if more centres are started, it may be possible. For the present we must be content to "fill the gap" for a few, at any rate, of the children of Bermondsey.' *P. Thomas*

Directory of Schools—continued

THE BELTANE SCHOOL has now joined its Country Branch at Shaw Hill, Melksham, Wilts.

180 boys and girls already in residence. Room for more at all ages. Own farm produce.

School work proceeding without interruption.

OAKLEA

BUCKHURST HILL, ESSEX.

Recognized by Board of Education.

Removed for duration of war to

NESS STRANGE, near SHREWSBURY.

90 Boarders taken in pleasant country house in exceptionally safe area. Beautiful countryside.

Principal: BEATRICE GARDNER.

BRICKWALL

NORTHIAM

SUSSEX

Ideal country estate offering all modern educational activities.

Children trained for future usefulness without strain. Courses specially designed for each type. Advanced training in house management, music, dancing. Ages 5-18. Entire charge taken. Moderate inclusive fees.

SEVENOAKS OPEN AIR SCHOOL

For Children from 3-12 years

Education on modern lines. All work and play in open air. A few boarders taken in Principal's house in school grounds.

Full particulars from the Principal,

Constance M.A. KELLY, N.F.U. (Higher Cert.)

ST. MARY'S SCHOOL

16 WEDDERBURN ROAD, N.W.3

has reopened for the time being at:

Sunnydale, Torcross, nr. Kingsbridge, S. Devon

Usual staff retained. Boys & girls of all ages from 4-16. Fine airy house on the shore in safe neighbourhood.

The Principals:

Mrs. E. PAUL, Ph.D. and Mrs. ENA CURRY.

CRANEMOOR COLLEGE

CHRISTCHURCH

HAMPSHIRE

BOYS 14-19 YEARS

Fifteen to twenty boys are in residence under very healthy conditions, preparing for University or Professions. Boys needing special understanding and individual coaching do very well at Cranemoor.

NORTH OF ENGLAND

HIGH CROFT SCHOOL, evacuated to **Thornton-le-dale**, is being reorganised as a progressive day and boarding school for children from 3-14 years of age.

Apply Principal, The Lodge, Thornton-le-dale, Yorks.

FOREST SCHOOL, REEPHAM, NORFOLK. Co-educational, Boarding, 5-18, Open-air life. 40 acres. Family background : progressive, individual methods ; practical preparation for life, including examinations. Riding. Crafts. Headmaster. Cuthbert Rutter, M.A. interviews London.

CHILDREN'S HOUSE for 12 girls under 15, attached Llandaff School, Cambridge. Progressive Preparatory. High standard without pressure or competition. Individual attention. Musical training, handwork, games. Moderate fees.—Miss Tilley, M.A.

NEW HERRLINGEN SCHOOL (recognized by the Board of Education) welcomes English children to grow up with German children in a home-like atmosphere. Principal, Anna Essinger, M.A., Otterden, Kent. Tel., Eastling 6.

PINEHURST, Goudhurst. On the beautiful Kentish Weald. Progressive School. Co-educational 3-12 years. Sound education. Crafts. Riding. Food Reform Diet. Sun and Air Bathing. Excellent health record. Miss M. B. Reid, Principal.

CHINTHURST SCHOOL, Tadworth, Surrey. Preparatory School for Boys. Pre-Preparatory house for Girls and Boys. Friendly atmosphere. Riding. Swimming Pool. Children from other countries are welcome. Holiday pupils taken. *Apply* Principals.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S, Great Missenden, Bucks. Preparatory School for Girls and Small Boys on modern lines. Individual attention. Thorough musical training. Recognized by Board of Education. Entire charge taken if parents abroad. Froebel and Graduate Staff. *Apply* Principal.

RED HATCH, ANDOVER RD., WINCHESTER. A Home School in country surroundings, children 3-12 years. Special attention is given to health and diet. Entire charge, temporary or short periods. Trained staff. For particulars *apply* Principal.

SHERRARDSWOOD SCHOOL. An independent, Co-Educational Day School for boys and girls from 5 to 18 in Welwyn Garden City, Herts. Headmaster, J. B. Annand, M.A.(Cantab.), M.R.S.T.

THE MOUNT SCHOOL, Mill Hill, N.W.7. An attempt is made to keep the school in touch with real everyday things. Principal, Mary Macgregor, B.A.(Lond.), Cambridge Teacher's Diploma.

LONG DENE SCHOOL, Jordans, Beaconsfield. Open-air Day and Boarding School for Boys and Girls from three years to School Certificate. Twenty miles from London. Modern methods. Headmaster : Leslie England, B.A.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S SCHOOL, now at EAST DOME, BOGNOR REGIS, SUSSEX. Upper and Middle School for Girls, Lower School, N.F.U. Staff. Boys and girls 4-10. Boarding and Day.

BEACHCROFT, LITTLEHAMPTON, SUSSEX. Home School for small boys and girls. Individual care. Trained nurse. Close sands. Beach hut. Entire charge, temporary or short periods. Miss Moir (Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford).

HALSTEAD PLACE, Sevenoaks (recognised preparatory) has moved to "a'Beckett's," Littleton Panell, WILTSHIRE, for the duration of the war. 18 acres. 300 feet high. Ages 7-14. After Christmas, girls only.

NURSERY HOME. Berks., country. Ideal home life for young children in peaceful atmosphere with skilled care. Large garden, orchard. Dancing, riding available. Fees from 3 guineas weekly. Miss Douglas, Lane End, Beenham.

FULLY TRAINED St. Christopher Nurse offers Home for children 2-6. For holidays or permanently. Terms moderate. For particulars please apply to Miss Cornish, Holly Cottage, Eversley Centre, nr. Basingstoke.

CHILDREN'S FARM, ROMANSLEIGH, NORTH DEVON. A country home and school for children under 14. Qualified staff. Animal care, riding, crafts. Children welcomed for the holidays. Mr. and Mrs. Volkmer, B.A.

STANWAY SCHOOL, DORKING. Home and Day co-educational Preparatory School to 14 years. Nursery Class. Entire charge taken. Specially designed building on high ground. Education as an atmosphere, a discipline, and a life.

